

THE
HISTORY
OF
MANCHESTER
IN FOUR BOOKS.

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MDCCLXII.



T H E

H I S T O R Y

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M A N C H E S T E R,

B O O K T H E F I R S T,

Containing the ROMAN and ROMAN-BRITISH Period.

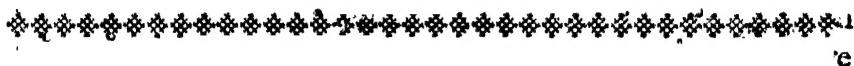




H I S T O R Y

O F

M A N C H E S T E R.



BOOK THE FIRST.



S E C T. I.

MID the various doubts and uncertainties with which
A ignorance and inattention have clouded the Roman geo-
graphy of our island, no uncertainty has ever arisen and
no doubt has ever been started concerning the well-known claim
of Manchester to the character of a Roman station. A Roman
station has been acknowledged by all the antiquarians to have been
planted in the neighbourhood of Manchester. A Roman station
has been acknowledged by all the antiquarians to have been con-
structed upon the bank of the Medlock and within the circuit
of the Castle-field. And the station is confessed by all of them
to have been the denominated Mancunium of the Roman Itine-
rary. But the origin of this Mancunium is not, as all the an-

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tiquarians.

antiquarians have equally agreed to suppose, derived merely, and absolutely from the Romans. The appellation by which it is denoted in the Roman Itinerary is obviously not Roman, is obviously deduced from the British language. And this plain circumstance strikingly suggests to the mind, that the name was originally imposed by the Romans, that the name was actually imposed by the Britons themselves. And the Britons only could communicate a British name to a Roman fortress. But if the Romans had been the original constructors of the fort, they would certainly, they must necessarily, have given it a Roman name. If the site of the fort had lain totally undistinguished from the waste around it by any particular denomination till the Romans first fixed their station upon it, it would necessarily have received a particular a Roman denomination from them. And when the Romans had given it a Roman name at first, they would certainly not have adopted any other name afterwards which the subjected Britons might have pleased to bestow upon it. They would certainly not have inserted that name in their formal Itineraries. And they would certainly not have superseded the original Roman name for ever by the new British one. Acting entirely upon a reversed plan, they greatly affected to bury the British under Roman names, and to supersede Durovernum by Cantiopolis, Durocobrivis by Forum Dianæ, Londinium by Augusta, and Eboracum Deva and Isca Silurum by the names of the respective legions that were quartered at those places. The name of Mancunium therefore must have been communicated to the site of the Roman station by the Britons themselves, and before the Romans constructed their station upon it. And as the name of Mancunium signifies a fortress or town in the language from which it is derived, the site of the Roman station must have been previously the area of a British town or fortress. Till the site of it was thus or similarly distinguished, it could not possibly have received any denomination at all. Till the site was thus, and thus only, distinguished, it could not possibly have received the particular denomination of Mancunium. And, so distinguished, it necessarily received that or some other name; a name

a name expressive either of its particular use, or of its local circumstances. The Roman geographers have pointed out to us a large variety of fortresses, in the British unconquered isle of Ireland². And the Roman warriors appear to have met with as large a variety of fortresses in the reduction of Britain. They actually found more than twenty towns among two nations only upon the southern shore of the island³. They actually found Camulodunum the capital of Cunobeline's kingdom, which they formed into a colony⁴. They actually found Verulamium a city of the Cassii, which they modelled into a municipium⁵. They actually found Calleva or Wallingford, Durnovaria or Dorchester in the West, Eburacum or York, Isurium or Aldborough in Yorkshire, and many others, which they afterwards converted into stations⁶. And finding the fortress of Mancunium at Manchester, as they had previously found others in the more southerly and easterly parts of the kingdom, and fixing their own station upon the site of it as they had previously fixed upon the sites of others, they necessarily received, and therefore naturally continued, the original and British denominations of all, and only softened them to the Roman ear by giving them a Roman termination.

This is a remark, so far, as it is confined to Mancunium or Manchester in particular, which is suggested by the first reflection upon the British name of the station in the Roman Itineraries. This is a remark, so far as it extends to our towns in general, and equally comprehends the cities of Britain and of Gaul, which is suggested by the mere review of their names in the same Itineraries. Many of the names in the Gallic and the British Itinera are Roman, most of them are Celtic, and some of them are both Roman and Celtic. Where the appellation is merely Roman, as *Aquæ Sextiæ* and *Forum Neronis* in Gaul or *Prætorium* and *Villa Faustini* in Britain, tho' the fortress which is signified by it may still possibly challenge a Celtic origin, yet the presumption certainly lies in favour of a Roman one. But where the appellation is purely Celtic, as *Camulodunum*, *Vindomagus*, and *Condate*, or even consists of Roman and Celtic together,

together, as Londinium Augusta; there the origin of the fort is evinced to be absolutely Celtic. And to this rule there are only two possible exceptions, the one positive, and the other negative; the one respecting the British names of such stations as are within five or six miles of each other, of which the fortresses that range along the line of Severus's wall are particular instances; and the other respecting the Gallic and British names of such stations as are wholly denominated from the rivers upon which they stand, as Iliberis and Rhuscium in Gaul, or as Ilica Silurum and Ilica Damnoniorum, Alauna and Ad Alaunam, Tuæsis and Ad Tuæsim, Tamesis and Ad Sturium, in Britain. In the former series of names, many of the forts cannot have been originally the fortresses of the primæval Britons; and their names are therefore to be referred to another cause, as will be more fully explained hereafter. In the latter, none can fairly be reckoned for the sites of such fortresses, except there be some greater evidence of the fact than the mere report of the British name. And, under these two restrictions, this is a criterion as simple as it is decisive, which has been never attended to by the antiquarian critick, but which must necessarily prove of considerable assistance to him, and is generally the only assistance that he can have, in his enquiries into the first and original commencement of our towns.

In the present Castle-field then, the site of the Roman Castrum, but before the construction of the Castrum upon it, was the British town of Mancunium, all built upon the rocky height that forms the northern bank of the Medlock, and distinguished among the Britons of this region by the general appellation of MAN-CENION, or The Place of Tents. The singular nature of our towns in Lancashire before the entrance of the Romans into it was the necessary result of that life of hunting and grazing, which is the natural employ of man in the infancy of society, and which, in all the northern regions of the island, where the arts of agriculture were totally unpractised, was peculiarly the employ of the natives. The towns of the Britons were not their places of perpetual and general

general residence. They were only their places of refuge amid the dangers of war, where they might occasionally lodge their wives their children and their cattle, and where the weaker might occasionally resist the stronger till succours could arrive. And as before the Roman invasion they had known no other enemies than their own Celtic brethren, who like them were always eager to decide the contest by a battle in the field, neither the one nor the other could be expected to have any considerable skill in the science of fortification. But the Britons certainly possessed a greater portion of it than our critics are willing to allow them. Their fortresses were planted in the center of their woods, were defended by the natural advantages of the site, and were fortified by the falling of trees to obstruct the advance, and by the formation of a bark and a ditch to prevent the irruption of an enemy. And they resisted the attacks of the best troops under the command of the best officers in the world, and even gained from the greatest of the latter the repeated commendation of excellent fortifications¹⁰.

It is evident from the British names in the Roman Itineraries, that at the first settlement of the Romans in the island, or about the year 50 of the Christian æra, the Britons of the present England and Wales had above a hundred of these towns or fortresses in the woods, all constructed originally upon account of the various wars that were carried on betwixt their various tribes¹¹. The eleven nations that lay to the south of the Thames and the Severn had about thirty towns under their respective capitals Durover, Regn, Callev, Vincom, Vent, Durin, and others. The seven tribes that possessed all the country betwixt the Thames, the Humber, the Severn, and the Mersey, had about forty towns under their capitals Uriconiu, Coriniu, Verulam, Vent, Camulodun, Ragen, and others. The three tribes that peopled the hilly regions beyond the Severn and the Dee had about twenty towns under their several capitals Menap, Vent, and another. And the Brigantes, who enjoyed the extensive region that is now divided into the five counties of Durham, York, Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Lancaster, posses-

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sing the two first counties by the right of prior possession, and the three last by the right of a successful invasion, owned at the same period about the same number of cities in subjection to their metropolis.

Since the island was originally possessed from the south, the possessors must have gradually carried their settlements into the North, as they admitted other communities of their brethren into the island, or as the numbers of their own were augmented within it. Kent, the nearest to the continent, must have been first inhabited from it, and in all probability about a thousand years before the nativity of Christ; and all the long range of the southern coast immediately afterwards. Having thus extended their settlements from the eastern to the western sea, the Celtic colonists would begin to advance towards the north, and must at last reach the southern borders of Lancashire. But the marshes of Cheshire, which extended to the east of Norton, and the unfordable depth of the Mersey, along the margin of which they extended, would effectually prevent their entrance into the county from the south-west. They must have entered it betwixt the village of Norton on one side and the hills of Yorkshire on the other; and the parishes of Ashton, Manchester, Flixton, Eccles, and Warrington must have been the first-inhabited parts of the county. And this memorable event must have happened a considerable time before the invasion of the Brigantes, which was made about the beginning of the Christian era. At this period, the lengthening line of the Celtic settlements appears from that invasion to have been now carried on to the utmost limits of the present England. This memorable event must have happened even before the numerous colony of the Belgæ, three hundred and fifty years preceding that æra, passed over the narrow boundary of the sea, and settled, like the primitive possessors, along the southern coast of the island. At this period, many of the native inhabitants, relinquishing their ancient seats to the Belgæ, found all the central and northern parts of England already occupied, and therefore transported themselves into the uninhabited isle of Ireland. At this

this period therefore the county of Lancaster in general, and the parish of Manchester in particular, had certainly received a colony of the Celtæ.

And they could not have received one very long before it. The gradual progression of the Celtæ along the broad base of the triangle which the island forms, and afterwards across the wide plane to the tapering summit of it, must have been the labour of many ages. The population of England was completed before the abovementioned æra: and it could not have been completed long before it. Had the inhabitants of Gallo-way in particular been seated in that country for a considerable time before the Belgæ arrived on the southern coast of England, so very near as the coast of Ireland was to them, they could not have left the first plantation of that island to their brethren of the South. And that they did leave it is as strong an argument as we can have, that the settlement of the southern regions of Scotland had not been long completed at the arrival of the Belgæ. The county of Lancaster therefore in general, and the parish of Manchester in particular, must have been first planted about one hundred and fifty years before that arrival, and about five hundred before the Christian computation, about the æra of Darius's expedition into Greece, the restoration of the democracy at Athens, and the institution of the consulate at Rome.

Thus settled in the woody region of Lancashire, the colonists received the appropriate name of Setantii, Sistantii, or Siftuntii, as the settlers who took possession of Cumberland and Westmoreland received the appropriate title of Voluntii or Volantii. The name of the former was expressive of their maritime situation. It is compounded of SE, TAN, TIU. or S, IS, TAN, TIU, signifies either simply THE COUNTRY OF WATER or discriminately THE INFERIOUR AND SOUTHERLY COUNTRY OF WATER, and expresses the particular position of Lancashire with respect to the Volantii and the sea. Setantii must have been the original appellation of the original colonists; and Sistantii or Siftuntii must have been afterwards conferred upon them, when new colonists had taken possession of Cumberland and Westmoreland, and

when accuracy was obliged to distinguish the one from the other ". And from the beautiful altar which was discovered at Elenborough in Cumberland, and which is inscribed VOLANTI VIVAS, Elenborough appears to have been originally denominated Volantiu, and was therefore assuredly the original capital of the Volantian towns ". But the Sifuntii had the towns of Coccui, Bremetonac, Berigon, Veratin, and our own Mancenion; all acknowledging the first to be, what the name of Coccui or supreme undeniably imports it to have been, the British metropolis of Lancashire. Such was the principality of the Sifuntian Britons, subject to its own capital, and governed by its own regulus ".

.. The neighbouring tribe of the Brigantes had been hitherto confined within the counties of York and Durham. But overcharged in all probability with a numerous youth about the commencement of the Christian æra it detached a strong party of them across the long barrier of hills which extends from Derbyshire to Scotland, and into the countries of the Sifuntii and Volantii beyond them. These, apprehensive of the coming invasion, and providing against the common danger, seem to have wisely entered into a very strict and intimate alliance. They entered however in vain. Unable with their united forces to resist the vigour of the Brigantian arms, they were obliged to submit, and received the general appellation of Brigantes. Coccui and Volantii were deprived of their little supremacies. And both they and our own Mancenion were reduced under the supremacy of the Brigantian capital ".

The appellation of Britain has been for ages tortured, racked, and dismembered by the antiquarians, in order to force a confession of its origin and import from it. And erudition, running wild in the mazes of folly, has eagerly deduced it from almost every word of a similar sound in almost every known language of the globe. But the Celtic must obviously be the only one that can lay any competent claim to it. And the Celtic must obviously challenge it all for her own. The name must certainly have been either assumed to themselves by the Celtic settlers on the island, or commu-

communicated to them by their Celtic brethren on the continent. And the import of it may be as easily ascertained as its origin. It, and that appellation of Brigantes which our ancestors received from their conquerors, is derived from the original and common appellation of all the tribes of Britain. The first denomination of the island was Albin or Albion", a name that was evidently conferred upon it before it was ever inhabited, and while its Alb-in Alb-ion or high rocks were only viewed at a distance from the opposite shore of Gaul. The second denomination of the island was Breatin, Brydain, or Britain"; a name not applied to the region, but bestowed upon the inhabitants"; a name not previously borne upon the continent by the original settlers of the country, but assumed or received upon the first removal of them into the island. And this name is derived from a Celtic word denoting separation and division. This is a particular which in the natural language of the continent has always characterised the inhabitants of this island. This is a particular (as I shall afterwards shew) which has equally given denomination to the tribes of Ireland, to the nations of Caledonia, and to two or three islands upon our coasts". The original word is still retained in the Welsh Brith and the Irish Breacht any thing divided or striped, and in the Irish Brioth a fraction or division, the Irish Brisead a rupture or division, and in the Welsh Breg a division or breach. The original word was equally pronounced Briect or Brit (as the Ictius of Cæsar is the Itium of Strabo), Bris, and Brig, and appears with this variety of termination in the usual appellation of the islanders Britanni, in the present denomination of the Armorican Britons Brez and Brezonec, and in this the name of the Brigantes. Brit is enlarged into Brit-on, Brit-an, Brit-an-et in the plural, and forms the appellation Brit-on-es, Brit-an-i, and Brit-an-ic-i"; as Brig is either changed into Brig-es in the plural, and forms Allo-brig-es, or Allo-brog-es, the appellation of a tribe upon the continent and of all the Belgæ within the island, or is altered into Brig-an and Brig-ant, and forms the denomination Brig-ant-es. And as we find the name of Brigantes applied

plied once by a native Briton to the whole body of the Caledonian Britons¹, so we see the name of Britannia actually applied by Ravennas to the country of the Brigantes, and our own Sifturtii expressly declared to possess a third part of this Britannia².

¹ SEE Appendix No. I. and Iter. I. &c. — ² See b. I. ch. xii. sect. 4. of this work. — ³ Vespasianus — in Britanniam translatus — duas validissimas gentes, *superque viginti oppida* — et insulam Vectem Britanniae proximam, in deditiōnem redegit (Suetonius p. 240. Oxon.) — ⁴ Dio p. 59. Hamburgi 1750, and Tacitus Annal. lib. xii. c. 32. — ⁵ See b. I. ch. ix. sect. 1. — ⁶ See b. I. ch. vii. sect. 4. — ⁷ Baxter's Gloss. and Antiq. Britan. — ⁸ Cæsar p. 89. Clarke, Glasgow, Interiores plerique frumenta non ferunt, sed lacte et carne vivunt. — ⁹ Cæsar p. 92. Oppidum Britanni vocant — quod, incursionis hostium vitandæ causâ, convenire consueverunt; and Tacitus in Agric. Vitâ. c. xxvii. Britanni conjuges ac liberos in loca tuta transferrent. — ¹⁰ Cæsar p. 92. Cognoscit non longe ex eo loco oppidum Cassivellauni abesse, sylvis paludibusque munitum; quod satis magnus hominum pecorisque numerus convenit. Oppidum autem Britanni vocant quum sylvas impeditas vallo atque fossâ muniunt. — Locum reperit egregiè naturâ atque opere munitum. — p. 87, Se in sylvas abdiderunt, locum nacti egregiè naturâ et opere munitum, — quem — jam ante præparaverant; nam, crebris arboribus succis, omnes introitus erant præclusi. — See also Strabo p. 306. Amstel. 1707. and more particularly Dio p. 227. — ¹¹ Cæsar p. 87. Locum egregiè et naturâ et opere munitum, quem, domestici belli, ut videbatur, causâ, jam ante præparaverant. — Cæsar p. 88. Mela l. iii. c. 6. and Richard p. 6. — ¹² See a full account of this author in b. I. ch. iii. sect. 1. — ¹³ Richard p. 17—27, and his *antiquities* Antonine's Itinerary. (See Appendix No. I.) — ¹⁴ Richard p. 50. and the subsequent History of the Population of Britain and of Ireland b. I. ch. xii. sect. 4. — ¹⁵ Compare Cæsar's expressions *Antiquitus transductos*

transductos p. 33. and Memoria proditum p. 88. with Richard p. 50.—¹⁵ Richard p. 50. And in p. 42 he says, Certissimum est that the other tribes of Ireland came in postea, after these Britons.—¹⁶ See also B. I. ch. xii. sect. 4.—¹⁷ Ptolemy; Richard p. 47; Gale on Antoninus p. 15; and B. I. ch. v. sect. 1. Ravennas calls them Sifuntiaci (Gale, p. 146.); and Baxter, with his usual wantonness of criticism, alters their name Setantii into Segantii.—¹⁸ Horsey, p. 282.—¹⁹ More Roman inscriptions have been found at this Volantium or Elenbrough than perhaps in any one city besides through the whole extent of Roman Britain (Horsey p. 279). And as the inscription upon the plane of the above-mentioned altar was evidently in honour of Peregrinus, and in memorial of his building or restoring the houses and temple of the Decuriones, so the inscription upon the capital of it, *Volanti vivas*, was evidently a wish in honour of the same person; a wish aptly corresponding with the dedication of the above-mentioned houses and temple to *the Genius of the place*; a wish that Peregrinus might always live at the town to the inhabitants of which he had been so great a benefactor, and to the Genius of which he had been so pious a votary.—²⁰ Richard p. 27. Proprie sic dicti Brigantes, gens numerosissima, toti olim provinciae leges prescribens; and Ptolemy, though he places the Sifuntii on the western sea, yet carries the Brigantes from sea to sea.—Richard p. 27. Volantii Sifuntiique arctiori foedere conjuncti—And Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. xvii. Brigantum civitatem quae numerosissima totius provinciae perhibetur.—²¹ Pliny lib. iv. c. 16. and Richard p. 1. Veteres Britanniam primum Albionem cognominaverunt.—²² Pliny and Richard ibid.—²³ Richard p. 1. Vocabulo gentis suae Britanniam cognominaverunt.—²⁴ B. I. ch. xii. sect. 2. and 4.—²⁵ So Sifuntii is formed by Ravennas into Sifuntiaci (Gale p. 146.), and Poeni Punici and Phoenices are one and the same name.—²⁶ Richard p. 18. and 20.—²⁷ *Brigantes* (says Galgacus), femina duce, exurere colossiam &c. (Agric. Vit. c. xxxi). And see also B. I. ch. xii. sect. 5.—²⁸ Gale p. 146.

II.

CATTLE were the great riches of the Britons in general. And it was a common practice among the tribes to keep large herds of their cattle upon the uninhabited grounds that skirted the borders of their country. They retained under their own care as many as they could conveniently furnish with pastures, and they detached the rest into the borders under the care of their servants. And these they sometimes called Cheangon or retainers from their condition, and sometimes denominated Paruis, herdsmen, or Gabrantic, goat-herds, from their employ. The proper Brigantes had their Parisi or Gabrantuici inhabiting all the East-riding of Yorkshire for the benefit of its extensive wolds. The Ordovices of North-Wales had their Cangiani or Cangani inhabiting along the sea-coast of Carnarvonshire from Brachy-Pult Point in the South nearly to Bangor in the North. And the Sifuntii of Lancashire kept their cattle and their Cangii among the numerous mountains that fill up all the south of Westmoreland, and that then formed the northern barrier of their country. The Sifuntii also, like their brethren of Yorkshire and North-Wales, naturally provided for the security of these Cangii and their charge by the erection of fortresses among their pastures. Such plainly appears to have been the Petuaria of the Parisi, the Segontium of the Cangani, and the Concangii of the Sifuntians. Such the two first are evinced to have been by their sites and the names of the tribes to which they belonged. And such is the last more plainly evinced to have been by its own name as well as by its own site. Its name imports it to be the capital of the Cangii. And its proximity to Lancashire, being seated at Water-crook in the Vale of Kendal, shows those inhabitants to be the Cangii of the Sifuntians. The whole county of Westmoreland must have been originally appropriated to the feeding of cattle; and must for this purpose have been partitioned equally betwixt the Sifuntii and the Volantii, the adjoining

adjoining barony of Kendal being assigned to the former, and the contiguous barony of Westmoreland being allotted to the latter. The whole county of Westmoreland certainly remained wild and uncultivated in general to the late period of the Saxons. And the whole county therefore acquired from the Saxons the appellation which it retains at present, which the ancient unnoticed pronunciation of the A has hitherto disguised to every critical eye, and which is nothing more than the waste moor land or the uncultivated region :

The little armouries of the Sifuntii, like the armouries of their brethren in the other districts of the island, must have been furnished with helmets, coats of mail, shields, and chariots, and with spears, daggers, swords, battle-axes, and bows. The helmet, the coat of mail, and the chariot were confined to the chiefs; and the common soldiers fought always on foot, provided with shields for their own defence, and with spears, swords, daggers, bows, and battle-axes for the offence of an enemy⁶. The shield was like the target of our present Highlanders, slight, generally round, and always bossy⁷. The sword was like the broad sword of the same mountaineers, large, heavy, and unpointed⁸. And the dagger was like their present dirk⁹. But some instruments have been discovered in Scotland, Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, and the isle of Anglesey, in Essex, Hampshire, Wiltshire, Cornwall, and Staffordshire, and near Marton mere in Lancashire, which the antiquarians have generally attributed to the Celtæ, and which they have therefore distinguished by the general appellation of Celts¹⁰. Such an one was also discovered about fifty years ago in one of our Mancunian mooses, and was immediately repositied in our Mancunian library. There has it since lain, mingled with the lumber of petty curiosities, the customary trifles of every library, and is still exhibited among them as an oddly formed chissel or an outlandish wedge. The wedge-like form of these instruments is sufficiently known. In that particular nearly all of them agree. And they differ only in this, that some have no handle and are therefore hollow in the blade, and others have an handle and

and no hollow. Of the latter sort is our Mancunian Celt. Its blade, which is fluted a little at the upper end, is three inches in length, three quarters of an inch in breadth, and half an inch in thickness at the fluted end, and thence widens to the breadth of one inch and a quarter at the edge. And the brazen loop at its side is nearly half an inch in breadth and three quarters in length. But the socket, which is of the same metal, is two inches and a half in length, nearly one inch in breadth at its conjunction with the blade, and more than three quarters at the other extremity. And it has a small hollow on both sides for its whole extent, which is channelled in the middle, and is bordered by a slight molding for more than one inch and three quarters from the blade. Such is the just description of this brazen instrument, by which it undeniably appears to be what scarcely any of the antiquarians have supposed it to be. Not an axe-head for the cutting of trees, not a chisel for the working of stones, as is plainly evinced by the too great narrowness of its edge and the too great softness of its metal; not a druidical hook for the cutting of mistletoe, as is evident from the smallness of the blade and the obtuseness of its edge; not the head of an halbert, as is evident from its small size and its too great levity; and not the point of an arrow, a spear, or a javelin, as is clear from the roundness of its edge and its too great size; it was plainly the head of a light battle-axe¹¹. The hollow of the socket and the raised molding on either side are plainly calculated for the reception of a wooden handle in the same line with the blade; and in a brass Celt which was lately discovered among the hills of Saddleworth, and which is now in my own possession, the remains of a wooden handle were found actually inserted in the cavity of the hollow blade¹². The termination of the molding three quarters of an inch from the end evinces that part to have been inserted into the stock of the handle and in a right angle with the blade. This insertion united firmly the head and the handle of the battle-axe; and the union was strengthened by a pin in the socket. That did not pass through the substance of the socket, but was received into a small

a small orifice upon one side of it, and, as appears from the largeness of the cavity within, was there secured by an infusion of melted metal. And the whole appears from the loop at the head to have been hung across the shoulder or suspended at the side by a leathern thong. Thus does this brazen instrument appear to have been originally the head of a light battle-axe; and it is very like in the formation and size of its blade to the light axes of the American Mohawks. And this and all the rest are very plainly the heads of British battle-axes. Some of these Brazen weapons have been actually found in the sepulchers of the Britons upon the Downs of Wiltshire and within the region of Caledonia. And as other instruments have been discovered in Wiltshire, Warwickshire, Staffordshire, and Cheshire, which were shaped in the same manner and must therefore have been designed for the same uses, which however were not composed of brass but were formed of stones; the rude simplicity of these axes, their correspondence with the arrow-heads of flint which have been so often discovered in Scotland, and the frequent discovery of the same sort of axes in the sepulchers of the Gauls and of the Britons, incontestably evince the Britons to have been the original proprietors of all. Such a stone-formed head of a British battle-axe I have now in my own possession, a great curiosity in itself, as very few have been found in the kingdom, a greater, as it is the first that has been found in Lancashire and the second that has been discovered in the North. This was thrown up by the harrow in one of the fields that are immediately upon the left hand of the road to Throstle nest. This is a strong heavy Celt, molded with great regularity from a large stone, and ground neatly to an edge, and is remarkably different from the flint-made axes of Warwickshire and Staffordshire. Those were all of them small, and most about four inches and a half only in length. But this is twelve inches in length, and three inches and three and a half in breadth. About three inches and an half from the broad and blunted end, the breadth of the stone is perforated for the insertion of an handle, as the thickness of the stone

stone is left greater for an additional strength. But the eye is made wider at the extremities than in the middle, that the handle may be fastened within it by little wedges of wood upon either side. And the whole Celt, even without the handle, which must certainly have been proportionable to it, is not less than eight pounds and four ounces in weight".

The use of this, as of the military car-rhod, wheeled car, or chariot, must have been derived to the Britons from their Gallic ancestors, and have been first introduced into the island with the first inhabitants of it. Nor had the Gauls at the first invasion of Britain by the Romans entirely forgotten the use of the chariot. Some tribes still retained the car of their ancestors, and used it equally for the journey and the fight". But in Britain the use of it was universal at this period, and particularly discriminated the tribes of the Britons from all the other nations of Europe". These chariots the Britons distinguished by the two denominations of *Esledom* or seats and of *Covini* coffins or vehicles". And these chariots had their wheels sometimes furnished with scythes, were always drawn by two horses, and carried sometimes two persons, the driver and the warrior, and sometimes only one".

' CAESAR p. 88: and Mela lib. iii. c. 6. — ' Ptolemy, and Richard p. 27. *Gabr* makes *Gabr-ant* in the plural and *Gabr-ant-ic* in the relative adjective. — ' Ptolemy, and Richard p. 23. See also b. I. ch. v. sect. 1. — ' Notitia for *Concangii*. The name is *Con Cangii* the head or chief seat of the *Cangii*. So *Segontium* is *Se Cond Ty* or the head abode. — ' So Moorland in Staffordshire. — ' Tacitus in Ann. lib. xii. c. 35; Dio p. 1280; and Herodian lib. iii. c. 47. Oxon. 1678; compared with Ossian's Poems p. 37, 50, 51, 54, &c. (vol. I. quarto). Pegge's Coins of Cunobeline class. 4. 2, Mela lib. iii. c. 6. *Gallicæ Armati*, and Pegge's Coins class. 4. c. class 5. 4. and class 6. 2. The Poems of Ossian carry in themselves sufficient proofs of their own authenticity.

Brighton Battle-Axes.



Fig. 1.



Fig. 2.

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Fig. 2 & 3 These I have
reproduced in the Museum
of Old Lever-Cop.

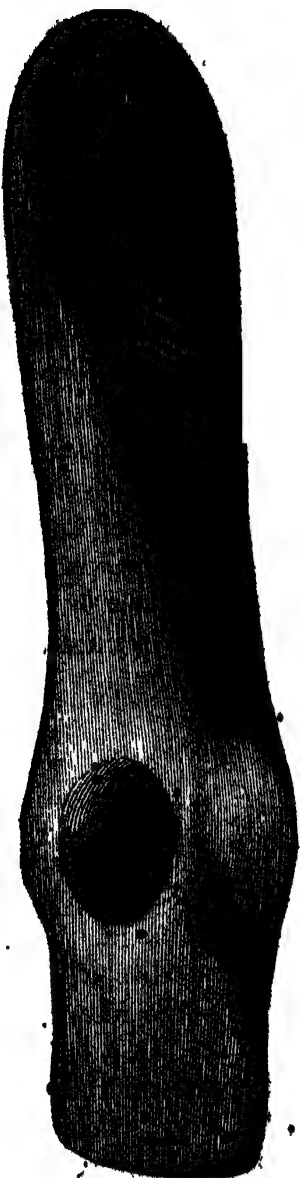


Fig. 3.

1 June 1896

Presented to the ASTON LEVER Cop. of Birmingham.

111. Three by a date of the staff.

ticity. • But see this confirmed by a variety of external testimonies in Dr. Blair's Critique on Ossian, 2d edit. The whole body of the Highland Scots are living witnesses of their authenticity. — 'Quis rotundam facere cetram nequit? Varro; Herodian lib. iii. c. 47; Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. 36; Ossian's Poems vol. I. p. 206; and Statius Silv. lib. v. hunc regi rapuit thorace Britanno. Each spear (says Dio p. 1281) had a brazen apple at the end, which was shaken in order to terrify the enemy with the noise. I have conversed (says Dr. Macpherson in Crit. Diss. p. 144. Lond. 1768) with some old Highlanders who have seen spears of that construction. The apple was called Cnapstarra, a boss of brass; and the spear was denominated Trini-framma, the Framea probably of the Germans.—⁸ Agric. Vit. c. 36.—⁹ Gordon's Itin. Sept. p. 52. and Plate, and Horsley's Scotland No. 3.—¹⁰ Hearne's Leland vol. I; Mona Antiqua p. 86. 2d edition; Plott's Staffordshire p. 403; Leigh's Lancashire b. I. p. 18; Stukeley's Abury p. 27; and Borlase's Cornwall b. III. ch. xiii. Dr. Borlase derives the name of Celt from Cælo to engrave: Unde (says he) Cæltis vel Celtis, quasi An Engraving Tool, p. 283. edit. 1760. Such are sometimes the little fooleries of learning.—¹¹ See Hearne's Leland and Plott's Staffordshire ibid., Stukeley's Stonehenge p. 46, Carte's History vol. I. p. 75, and Borlase b. III. ch. xiii.—¹² The wood seemed to be yew. And see ch. vi. sect. 2. and ch. iv. sect. 1. of b. I.—¹³ Camden c. 1263. Gibson for the head of a brazen axe found in a cairn, and Stukeley's Stonehenge p. 46.—¹⁴ Dugdale's Warwickshire p. 778. edit. 1st, Stukeley's Itin. Cur. p. 54, and Plott's Staffordshire p. 397.—¹⁵ See the battle-axe of a Gaul mentioned by Plutarch vol. I. p. 315. Bryan's edition: and see vol. II. p. 514. But in Montfaucon's l'Antiquité Expliquée, tome cinquième, p. 194 and 195, is an account of a plainly Gallic monument opened in France, in which were found about twenty skulls, and as many stones shaped into axes under them. One was an oriental stone studded with silver. And stone-axes are also found frequently in other parts of France (p. 196 and 197); as stone-weapons in general are often discovered in Germany (p. 198). • And sharp

and formed flints have been found with human bones at the British temple of Abury. (Stukeley p. 337. — " One found at Tabley Cheshire, Itin. Curios. p. 54. — " Dugdale p. 778, and Plots p. 403 and plate. A Celt of brass, one inch longer than this, was found in a British barrow upon Salisbury Plain; as a large brass weapon like a pole-axe, and twelve pounds heavier than this, was discovered in another (Stukeley's Stonehenge p. 46). And in the Museum at Oxford are fourteen or fifteen of these axes, three or four in stone, and the rest in brass, but all small and light. — " Strabo p. 306, and Diodorus p. 352. — " Cicero Epist. ad Fam. lib. vii. E. 6, 7, and Cæsar p. 79 and 80. — " Cæsar ibid. and Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. 35 and 36. — " Mela lib. iii. c. 6, Ossian p. 11. vol. I, and b. I. ch. ix. sect. 2; and Cæsar p. 79 and Diodorus p. 352. compared with Tacitus c. xii. Agric. Vit. and Ossian and this Work ibid. .

. III.

WHEN the Sifuntii first settled in the county of Lancaster, they would naturally erect no towns because they could dread no invaders, and the area of our Castle-field must have been left covered with the oaks of its native woods. They could fear nothing from the Britons of Cheshire, of whom they must have been a colony, or by whom they must have been permitted to march through their country into Lancashire. They could fear nothing from the more southerly Britons, for whose superfluous numbers there were all the uninhabited counties of the North, and to whose colonies they were ready to afford a peaceable passage through their country. And when the Belgæ of the southern coast, about one hundred years before Christ, extended their encroachments into the interior regions of the island; the many refugees retired not into the more northerly counties, and either gained a settlement by allowance or secured one by violence among them, but passed over immediately to their brethren in Ireland. The political fears of the Sifuntii must have been first excited, and their political precautions first taken, upon an incident

incident of a more alarming nature and upon encroachments in a nearer district. About half a century before Christ the Britons of Cheshire, as I shall shew hereafter, burst from the narrow confines of their own dominions, and attacked over-ran and subdued three or four of the adjoining counties on the South. Such an act of hostility among the natives of the North, the first that we know to have been committed amongst them, would necessarily awaken the jealousies of all the neighbouring states, and would particularly induce the Siscuntii to erect one or more fortresses upon the line of their southern borders. Then must the area of the Castle-field have been cleared of its oaks, and then the well-watered fortress of Mancunion have been constructed by the Siscuntians. The fortress could not well have been constructed before this period. And it must necessarily have been constructed at it. Thus the rude station of Mancunion, one of the first towns in the county of Lancaster, a little prior to all the more northerly forts, and the first faint outlines of the present Manchester, was originally formed about half a century before Christ, about the æra of the war successfully carried on by the southerly Britons against the encroaching Belgæ, or about the æra of Cæsar's expedition against both.

The dimensions of Mancunion are still very discernible. It filled the whole area of the present Castle-field, except the low swampy part of it on the west, and was twelve acres three roods and ten perches in extent. Terminated by the windings of the Medlock on the south south-east and south-west, it was bounded on the east by a fosse, on the west by the present very lofty bank, and on the north by a long and broad ditch. The natural advantages of the river and the bank were great inducements with the Britons to select this particular situation. But the principal inducement must have been one of which the Britons could not readily be suspected, but upon which they appear to have very frequently acted. Most of the British fortresses appear to have had such a particular site selected for them as the area of the Castle-field presented and the coldness of our climate required, one that by its position on the northern bank of the ri-

ver, and its gentle declivity to the south or its collateral points, would give the Britons the whole undiminished reflected warmth of our British suns. And such are almost all the British fortresses mentioned in the Itinerary of Antoninus. Surrounded as the British fortresses must constantly have been with the ever-hovering damps of the neighbouring woods, such a position was naturally dictated by prudence. And for this reason, and for this only, must the area of the Castle-field have been preferred by the Britons to the site of the present church and college, the latter being superiour to the former in all the common requisites of a fortress, but being greatly inferiour to it in this.

On the east and north were the advantages of situation lost, the level of the area within being even with the surface of the ground without. Here therefore the Britons must have sunk a ditch and raised a rampart. And at the south-eastern angle of the Castle-field, and upon the lower margin of the Medlock, was actually a deep and narrow gulley that was cut through the solid rock, and existed to the year 1765. This was originally formed in all probability at the original formation of the British fortress, a part of its eastern boundary. And from this point the ditch seems pretty plainly to have mounted directly up the little garden that now lies along the eastern side of the Castle-field, the rocks on the right of the garden appearing evidently to have been cut away sloping towards the west, and the earth of it appearing as evidently from the rubbish, that to the depth of several feet is mingled with it, to be merely adventitious, and must have terminated (as I shall immediately shew) a little beyond the upper end of the garden. The northern ditch continues for the greater part of its original course, being carefully preserved in general by the Romans afterwards. And the extraordinary aspect of its western termination, so much more formidable than that of the Roman ditches, does of itself sufficiently bespeak the whole to be British. The eastern part of it, which must have been terminated by the ridge that runs along the margin of the present road, has been long filled up by the Romans, and no traces of it appear at present. But where the
 preser-

preservation of this ditch became afterwards necessary to the defence of the Roman station, there the course of it still plainly appears, the ground gently sloping away in most places for fourteen or fifteen yards to the north, and then rising up more sharply as many. Along the greatest part of this line the ditch has been considerably levelled, the earth of the banks having been long thrown down into the hollow. At present the terminating slope of the ditch on the east commences within forty yards from the road, and the large hollow of the fosse spreads about thirty-four yards in breadth and sinks gradually about one and an half in depth, falling gently away to the west. For the next twenty yards it is only about thirty broad and one deep, the southern bank gradually growing all the way. For the next sixty it is about thirty-four broad and one and an half deep. For the next sixty it is less deep, but is about forty yards in breadth; and the southern bank is scarcely visible. The fosse now begins to assume its formidable aspect, and gradually rises in grandeur as it proceeds towards the west. The southern bank all at once falls away in a long slope towards the north, and all at once becomes what the northern had hitherto been, the great striking signature of the fosse. At the end of forty yards the northern bank has no perceptible fall, but the southern carries a sharp descent of about twenty yards to the foot of it. At the end of ten more, where the northern slightly slopes away for eighteen yards, the southern descends as many yards much sharper than before to meet it. At the end of ten more, the northern presents to us a gentle fall of twenty, and the southern a steep fall of eighteen. And both this and the other mount with a very steep ascent of twenty for the remaining twelve, as the channel, cutting the thick bank in two, descends with a quick fall to the west.

On the west was the natural barrier of a lofty bank, forming a sharp slope of fifty yards to the swampy ground below it. This is the southern point of that long bank which extends beside the ground immediately to the north of the British city. And where this natural barrier turned curving in an obtuse angle to the south-east, the line of the British fortification, not curving with

with it, was continued directly to the river, and the rampart still appears along the descent to it, and still carries a large appearance and an elevated crest. Beneath this bank and rampart spread out an impracticable morass about one hundred yards in breadth and three hundred in length, beginning at the margin of the Medlock on the south, extending betwixt the foot of the bank and the channel of a rill to the north-west of the British city, and giving it a full security upon that quarter. But directly upon the margin of the Medlock the edge of the morass remained to the present period sufficiently practicable and hard, and obliged the Britons to continue the bank to the river.

These were the natural and artificial barriers of the British Manceniora on the east the north and the west. And, for greater safety on the south, the winding bank of the river was carefully scarped by the Britons. The long strokes of their large pickaxes appeared in 1764, for the whole compass of the bank, upon the face of the rocks which are below the present edge of the water, and descended nearly to the original surface of it, within a yard and an half from the stony bed of the river. The continuance of this scarping along the whole compass of the margin evinces it plainly to be British, as it was evidently performed at a period when the whole area of the field was a fortification. It was evidently performed when the whole area of the field was not merely a temporary fortification, used occasionally for a few weeks till a regular station could be constructed within it, which was probably the case in the time of the Romans; but when it was a fixed a stated fortification, which was certainly the case in the time of the Britons only. And accordingly, deep in the artificial soil with which the face of the bank has been since covered, were found in 1765 and 1766 a Roman fibula, a Roman urn which shall be described hereafter, a Roman coin, which had . . . REDVCI upon one side and . . . AN AVG COS upon the other, and a Roman lachrymatory of black glass, deposited in a little hollow upon the rock and half-filled with tears, the cork-stopper being nearly consumed by time, and the

the liquid retaining a considerable degree of saltness.

Along one particular part of the margin; from the eastern boundary of the field beyond the mouth of the subterraneous tunnel, the only part in which the upper point of the bank has been hitherto cut down or laid open, the same effects of the British oecconomy in war have regularly appeared upon the front both of the rocks and of the soil which are above the present edge of the water, wherever the adventitious earth has been accidentally removed from the face of either. Both upon such a removal have appeared clearly to have been formerly cut down, either into a very sharp descent, or into an absolute perpendicular. Both therefore, as we have every reason to conclude, must have been so cut down, not only for this particular extent, but along the whole semicircular margin of the river. And about twenty yards to the east of the subterraneous tunnel, upon the point of a projecting rock and beneath the same artificial soil, appeared in 1766 a large flight of rude stairs leading down to the river, being seven steps about three yards in length, from three quarters of a yard to a foot in breadth and from ten to four inches in depth, and very visibly worn away near the middle. These stairs, formed as they must have been because of the steepness of the scarped bank and for an easier descent to the current, and formed as they pretty certainly were betwixt the original construction of the fortress and the advance of the Romans into Lancashire, would naturally upon the first alarm of the latter be thought to afford too ready a passage into the town. And the lower part of them had been actually cut down into an absolute perpendicular.

Such were the boundaries of this British city. The principal entrance into it must have been near the north-eastern angle of the field, and in the large vacancy betwixt the commencement of the eastern fosse and the conclusion of the northern ditch. This ground was opened in 1765, and the soil appeared plainly to have ~~been~~ never shifted at all. And the area inclosed within the whole the Britons must have filled with houses for themselves and with hovels for their cattle. Both of them must have been habitations more strongly built than their temporary huts.

huts of reeds or turf. The former particularly were designed to be the regular barracks of the garrison, and must therefore have been constructed in the superior style of British architecture. They must have been great round cabins built principally of timber upon foundations of stone, and roofed with a sloping covering of skins or of reeds. But the latter seem to have been constructed in a somewhat different form, to have been not rounded at all but nearly squared, and to have contained about sixteen yards by twelve within. Such at least was the ground-work of a building which was discovered within the area of the Castle-field in 1766, and which was laid in a manner that clearly bespoke it to be British. About half a yard below the surface of the ground was a layer of large irregular blocks, some hewn from the quarry of Collyhurst, and others collected from the channel of the river. And below it were three layers of common paving-stones, which were not compacted together with mortar, but were bedded in the rude and primitive cement of clay. Such was the architecture of this secret foundation, which was about two yards in breadth and about one in depth. And, as such, it appears to have been very antient. As such, it must have been laid before the preparation of lime for the purposes of building had been introduced among us, and consequently before the Sifuntii had been subdued by the Romans. The knowledge of that preparation was first communicated to us by the Romans. This appears plainly from the present remains of the British buildings in the isle of Anglesey in the Hebrides and in Wiltshire, which are all, like the more regular structures of the free Peruvians, constructed entirely without the assistance of mortar. And the same sort of foundations has been actually discovered about those huge obelisks of the primæval Britons near Aldborough in Yorkshire, which are so similar to the obelisks frequently erected without their circular temples. A foot beneath the surface of the ground, a course chiefly of boulders has been found at one of them laid upon a bed of clay, four or five courses of clay and boulders spreading successively beneath it, and the whole rude ground-work regularly buttressing

buttreffing the basis of the stone around ". This British foundation, upon which a strong broad wall of timber had been undoubtedly erected, could not have been the basis of a cabin for the British warriors, because it was modelled in a square form. It must therefore have been the ground-work of an hovel for the British cattle. And the opinion is strongly confirmed by the nature of its situation. It was placed upon the slope of the bank, and about the mid-way betwixt the great tunnel and the present road; as the floor of it had a strong inclination to the south, and the large door-way took up one whole side of it and was opposed to the north. And the same sort of foundations was discovered in 1765 and 1770, a few yards lower in the field, and running for thirty or forty yards together, a single layer as it then appeared of smallish paving-stones bedded equally in clay; resting upon the plane of the rock below, and covered with rubbish to the depth of a couple of yards above. The cabins perhaps were disposed into two or three rows or streets, coursed in right lines from east to west, and possessed the whole extent of the higher ground. This the gracefulness of a regular arrangement and the necessity of regular walks would naturally occasion. And the hovels perhaps were all placed in two or three lines behind the most southerly of the rows, and along the inclining margin of the river. This the conveniency of the neighbouring water and the requisite attention to neatness would obviously suggest. And the discovery of many blocks of Collyhurst stone in the foundation evinces the Britons of Mancenion to have skirted along the woody area of the present town with their cars, and to have repaired to the quarry of Collyhurst. The whole clough or woody hollow of Collyhurst appears clearly upon a survey to be nothing more than the ample cavity of a great quarry, which first began on the south-west, and which had its first road of entrance from it. And of this quarry our British fathers must have been the original openers, and must have borrowed from it the foundations of their Mancunian cabins and the ground-work of their Mancunian hovels.

During the continuance of this British fortress in the Castle-field, the whole extended country around it must have been one large wood, which began immediately on the outside of the barriers, and diffused itself for a considerable space around them¹². And the popular denomination of the wood among the Britons of this region will hereafter appear to have been Arden¹³. This was the common appellation of forests among the Britons in general, from the wildly extensive one which covered more than half the county of Warwick, and the site of which still retaineth the name of Arden, to the much smaller one that surrounded Mancenion. This was equally the common appellation of forests among their brethren of Flanders and of Scotland, and was originally written Arduen or Ardven¹⁴. And this original mode of writing the name demonstrates it to be compounded, not of Ar the præpositive article in Celtic and the substantive Den, as the great oracular interpreter of the Roman-British appellations states it to be¹⁵, but of Ard an adjective and Ven the same as Den. The meaning of the name therefore is not, as Baxter renders it, simply the hills, or, even as the ingenious translator of Ossian renders it, the high hill. Ard signifies either high or great, and Ven or Den imports either an hill or a wood¹⁶. And had they signified the former ideas only, neither could have been ever applied to the site of the Warwickshire and the Flanders forests, which have scarcely an hill, and have never an high hill, within their whole extent. Arduen Ardven or Arden¹⁷ signifies the great wood. Hence the name was applied to the Arden of Ossian, a part of which is synonymously denominated Morven or the great Ven, and the whole of which is characterized as uncommonly woody¹⁸. Hence, and hence only, the name became applicable to such very different sites as the plains of Warwickshire and Flanders and the hills of Scotland. And hence the name became applied, not only to the most considerable forests, to that which was the greatest in Gaul, or to that which was so great in Britain, but to many that were considerable only within their own contracted districts, to the forest of Morven and to the wood of Mancenion. The latter must have particularly

cularly covered all the site of the present Manchester. And all along the present streets, instead of the cheerful voice of industry and the numerous retainers of commerce, must have then existed the gloom of forests and the silence of solitude. So circumstanced must have then been the whole busy circuit of the present town, the solitude and silence being never interrupted but by the numerous resort of soldiers to the fortress in war, by the occasional visits of hunters in peace, and by the hollow hum the dying murmurs of the garrison conversing at a distance in the Castle-field. And a mind tolerably romantic might long amuse itself with the reflection, that the boar and the wolf, then (as will hereafter appear") the inhabitants of this gloomy region, were for the most part the only proprietors of these ample confines, and that they slumbered perhaps in security by day on the well-wooded bank of the present church-yard, and roamed perhaps in companies by night over the well-wooded area of the present market-place".

' CAESAR p. 34. Nostrâ memoriâ, and Richard p. 50. and 42. See also b. I. ch. xii. sect. 4.—' See b. I. ch. iv. sect. 2.—' Richard p. 50. and Cæsar p. 88. See also b. I. ch. xii. sect. 2.—' The sides of the Castle-field and the Roman fort do not quadrate exactly with the four cardinal points. But clearness and brevity oblige me to speak as if they did.—' Horsley p. 109 and 131.—' Cæsar p. 89. Oppidum Cassivellauni—sylvâ paludibusque munitum. And this lately continued so bad a morass, that even in the dry summer of 1765 horses sunk up to the belly in it.—' B. I. ch. ii. sect. 3.—' Cæsar p. 92. Oppidum Cassivellauni,—quò satis magnus hominum pecorisque numerus conveniret.—' Mona p. 89; Strabo of the Gallic houses p. 301; Cæsar, Edificia ferè Gallis consimilia (p. 88); Man-cenion literally the place of skins; and Pliny lib. xvi. c. 36.—' And the Germans in general were equally ignorant of lime: Ne cæmentorum quidem apud illos usus (Tacitus De Mor. German. c. xxi.)—' Gale's Essay on the four great roads in Leland's Itin.—' Cæsar p. 92. Oppidum

dum Britanni vocant quum sylvas impeditas vallo atque fossâ munierunt. P. 87. The Britons se in sylvas abdiderunt, locum nacti egregiè et naturâ et opere munitum.—¹³ B. I. ch. x. sect. 3.—¹⁴ Cæsar p. 84. and 126, Tacitus Ann. lib. iii. c. 42, and Ossian vol. I. p. 38 &c.—¹⁵ Baxter's Glossar. See also Camden. p. 426. edit. 1607.—¹⁶ Dictionnaire Celtique tom. I. p. 281 and 293.—¹⁷ So Ruthven is pronounced Ruthen at present.—¹⁸ Ossian vol. I. p. 32, 39, and 97. Hence the great wood to the west of the Severn is still denominated Dean or The Forest.—¹⁹ B. I. ch. x. p. 3.

²⁰ ——— Passimque armenta videbant

Romanoque foro, et lautis mugire carinis. Æneid. lib. viii.

IV.

THIS must have been the state of the British Mancenion in the Castle-field, this must have been the condition of all the extended country around it, when the Romans first advanced into Lancashire. And the former had been now constructed a little more than a century. In the regular progress of their arms from the south, the Romans attacked the powerful and numerous tribe of the Brigantes in the year 72 or 73. This attack was made under the command of Cerealis, but was confined by him to the proper Brigantes, the inhabitants of Yorkshire and Durham. In consequence of it, and after several bloody engagements, equality of valour gave way to superiority of discipline, and the proper Brigantes reluctantly submitted. Thus were the Siltuntii of Lancashire and their northern allies accidentally freed by the Romans from the dominion of the Brigantes. But weakened as perhaps they still were by their struggle with that warlike tribe, and conscious of their inability to make an effectual opposition to the subduers of their conquerors, they must every moment have expected and dreaded an invasion from the Romans. And in this state of impotence and fear they continued to the year 79; when one of the ablest officers in the

Roman Annals, Julius Agricola, entered their country at the head of a powerful army.

The only Britons that now remained unconquered by the Romans, within the present kingdom of England, were such of the Carnabii as inhabited Cheshire, the Sifuntii and the Volantii, and a part of the Gadeni and Otadini beyond both. These therefore, the three first of these at least, must necessarily have been the nations which Agricola attacked in his second campaign, and the names of which his historian most unaccountably suppresses.

As Agricola led his troops directly from the Ordovices of North-Wales, he must previously have subdued the Carnabii of Cheshire; and have invaded Lancashire from the south. Victorious over the Ordovices and the Carnabii, early in the summer of 79 did he lead his troops to the conquest of Lancashire. And he would naturally direct his march in two divisions, and enter the country in two places at once. The main body appears to have advanced by the way of Warrington, defeated the resisting Carnabii of the north-western marshes, and attacked the very defensible fortress of Veratinum¹. And a considerable party was most probably detached from the army at the same instant, crossed the Mersey at the indefensible pass of Stretford, marched along the fields of Trafford and the margin of the Irwell, and advanced up to the fortress of Mancinion².

In this exigence, the conduct of the Sifuntii and their allies was very different from the behaviour of the Brigantes. They wisely resolved to hazard no encounter with the Romans in the open field. They confined themselves within their woods, ever hovering upon the skirts of the Roman army, and ready to seize every opportunity of attacking it in the many defiles of their forests and morasses and in the many passages over their æstuaries and rivers. But their wisdom was ineffectual to save them. In the long march which Agricola made through the extent of their country, he did not afford them a single opportunity of attacking him to advantage. His smaller detachments constantly scoured the woods and morasses that flanked the army on its march,

march, and perpetually attacked the numerous parties of the enemy that were lurking in them; while the larger detachments or the main body pushed into the inmost recesses of their forests, florished their fortifications, and sacked their cities *. Of these the city of Mancention from its southerly position must have been very early exposed to the fury of the Romans. And in vain did it present to their arms the steep and scarp'd mound of its rivulet, the rising eminence of its bank, and the broad extent of its deep ditch. Terrified by the vigour with which Agricola pursued the war, and allured by the kind offers which he made them of peace, the Sistuntii and their northern neighbours submitted, and gave up some of their chieftains as hostages *.

* Tacitus Vit. Agric. c. xvii. Magnam Brigantum partem aut victoriâ amplexus aut bello. In this author, who wrote only a little while before Ptolemy, Magna Brigantum pars must refer to the whole of the proper Brigantes, who are mentioned only as a part in relation to the western or subject Brigantes.—

* See Horsley p. 47. — * See b. I. ch. v. sect. 4. — * Tacitus Vit. Agricolæ c. xx. Loca castris *ipse* capere, æstuaria ac sylvas *ipse* prætentare, et nihil *interim* apud hostes quietum pati quò minùs subitis excursibus popularetur; atque ubi satis terruerat, parcendo rursus irritamenta pacis ostentare. The word *interim* opposed to *ipse* plainly implies some operations distinct from those of the main army; as the clause, Nihil apud hostes quietum pati quò minùs subitis excursibus popularetur, represents the Sistuntii to have confined themselves to the woods and morasses, and to have been there attacked by Agricola's detachments. And the word *æstuaria* connected with *ipse* plainly shews the operations of the main army to have been directed along the coasts.— * Tacitus c. xx. Ubi satis terruerat, parcendo rursus irritamenta pacis ostentare. * Quibus rebus multæ civitates quæ in Fluminiem ex æquo egerant datis obsequiis iram posuere. *

C H A P. II.

I.

THE Sifuntii of Lancashire being subdued in the summer of 79, Agricola immediately resolved to establish forts and to plant garrisons in several parts of their country. He accordingly established the forts Ad Alaunam and Bremetonacæ in the north; Portus Sifuntiorum in the west, Rerigonium and Cogium about the center, Colanea on the east, and Veratinum and Mancunium on the south. Some fortresses were absolutely necessary to the maintenance of the Roman conquests in the county, and must always have been regularly erected by the Romans as they extended their conquests. Six of these in particular are mentioned by the earliest accounts which we have of the Roman stations in Lancashire, and five of them by one account that was drawn up about sixty years only after the reduction of it. Having been five of them originally British fortresses, they were now changed into stationary camps. And small garrisons, consisting principally of the infirm and the raw soldiers, were lodged in them, while Agricola with the rest attacked the more northerly Britons in the following summer.

In the selection of sites for their stationary camps, the Romans generally pitched upon such as had previously been the sites of British fortresses. The fact is abundantly shewn by the British names of the stations in the Roman Itineraries, near three-fourths of the stations bearing British names, and thereby evincing themselves to be erected upon the sites of British fortresses. The latter were generally planted upon such ground as an intimate knowledge of the country recommended, and such therefore as the policy of the Romans could not but approve. The latter I have previously shewn to have been generally planted upon such ground as the British Mancenion naturally afforded, and the woody condition of Britain particularly required; such as by
its

its position on the northern bank of a river, and by its gentle declivity to the south or its collateral points, would give the Romans the whole undiminished reflected warmth of our British suns.

On these united reasons Agricola must have first lodged a garrison in Mancenion, in order to secure the new-taken fortress and to awe the neighbouring Britons from it, while he advanced into the center of the county with the rest of his forces. On these united reasons Agricola must have afterwards commanded a regular station to be constructed upon the British Mancenion, when the successful campaign was terminated, and the Siltuntii and their allies subdued.

The Roman garrison of Mancenion must have begun the construction of their station in the autumn of 79. The compass of the intended fort, being marked out by the metator, the soldiers allotted to the business must have left their shields and their knapsacks in the center of the area and in circles about their respective standards, and have repaired in centuries to the posts which the præfectus assigned. And the rest of the garrison must have been stationed at the extremities of the field, to defend the labourers and themselves.

Adopting the British mode of building without the British necessity for it, the Romans founded their vallum as the Britons had previously founded their hovels, upon paving-stones bedded in the primitive cement of clay. This I discerned on making incisions into the stationary wall in two different parts of it. I cut down the wall from the surface to the center and from the center to the base, in order to see the curious construction of it within and below; and I found all the lime-laid parts of the wall in both rising from two courses of paving-stones cemented with clay. And the same extraordinary process in building has been discovered in other walls of the Romans: At the Roman town of Boroughfield on the Edle in Leicestershire, have been discovered the foundations of walls that were stones set edgewise in clay, and that had had a structure of lime-mortar upon them. At the Roman station of Aldborough in Yorkshire, the walls of the

the town appear to have been built upon layers of large pebbles laid upon a bed of blue clay four or five yards in depth. And the same sort of foundations remained very common in the kingdom for many centuries afterward, the old steeple of the church at Prees in Shropshire being very lately found to be reared upon a course of boulders and clay immediately above the natural rock. But the wall of the Roman Mancunium was not founded uniformly upon the same sort of clayey cement. The foundation of the western vallum was laid on two beds of blue well-worked clay, the lower being nearly a foot in depth and remarkably stiff and solid. But the foundation of the southern was laid in two courses, not of actual clay, but of clay-mortar, clay and sand incorporated together, and both lying upon a deep bed of fine river-sand that still retained a little of its original moisture. And as clay-mortar actually remained in use among us at Manchester within these thirty or forty years, so the neighbouring church of Preston was discovered in 1769 to have been constructed upon a layer of loose paving-stones laid in sand.

The old materials of the British banks the British cabins and the British hovels must have supplied the Romans sufficiently with stones. And with these they constructed the high strong wall of their castrum, heaping them together in a very irregular manner, and only sloping the face of the rampart a little. And as the wall was gradually raised from the breadth of seven or eight feet at the base, and was narrowed to one or two at the crest, they copiously poured their boiling mortar upon it. This from its fluidity insinuated itself into the many openings and hollows of the work, and from its strength bound all the irregular pieces of stone into a solid compacted wall. And the whole course of the vallum must have been gracefully terminated with the line of a platform within and with a coronet of battlements above.

In the formation of the Roman mortar, the sand appears to have been mingled with the lime unrefined by the sieve, and charged with all its loose gravel and large pebbles. Some of the mortar appeared actually on breaking to have been mingled with pounded brick, the small fragments of brick very prettily

chequering the surface of the mortar and being thoroughly incorporated into the substance of it'. And the lime was not derived either from the hills of Buxton on one side or from the heights of Clitherow on the other, which have long supplied the present town with that necessary fossil. The Roman lime is essentially different from both in its colour, being of a much shadier and browner hue. Nor would the Romans have collected their lime at so great a distance from the station, when it might have been easily found in the neighbourhood of it. A long vein of limestone stretches regularly across one region of the parish, and along the confines of Bradford, Newton, Ardwick, and Manchester townships. There, in the township of Manchester, was it discovered many years ago, and the discovery was briskly pursued for a short period. And there, in the township of Ardwick, has it been again discovered within these four or five years; and the proprietor, Thomas Birch Esq; of Ardwick, actually obtained from it a block of stone so elegantly veined and so variously clouded, that he ordered it to be polished, and it now forms the curious chimney-piece of one of his bed-rooms. But for a long time dubious whether he should break it up for marble or for lime, he finally resolved upon the latter, and has strangely neglected it ever since. This quarry breaks out in many places near the Ancoats, many ledges of limestone going athwart the channel of the Medlock, and various fragments being occasionally loosened from them by the force of the current. The fragments appeared lately very numerous in the channel. The fragments, upon any long intermission in the gathering of them, would appear very numerous again. They must therefore have been particularly frequent at the construction of the Roman station, and must many of them have lodged in the channel at the foot of the Castle-field. And, in their necessary enquiries after veins of limestone, the Romans would speedily discern these brown and marbled fragments in the Medlock, and would find in them a supply of lime sufficient for all their uses and immediately adjoining to their station.

The

The whole figure of the castrum was an irregular parallelogram. The parallel sides were equally right lines and equally long. But the corners were rounded. The Romans particularly affected the parallelogram in the configuration of their camps. And they esteemed those as the most beautiful of the sort which were just by one third longer than they were broad. But they seldom rounded the angles of such camps; and Ivelchester, Dorchester, Chesterford near Cambridge, Little Chester near Derby, and our own at Manchester are some of the few stations in the kingdom where they have¹⁰. The area of the Roman castrum was much smaller than the compass of the British town. And while the latter contained nearly thirteen acres of our statute-measure, the former included only about five acres and ten perches, or 24,500 square yards.

The eastern side, like the western, is one hundred and forty yards in length. And, for eighty yards from the northern termination, the nearly perpendicular vallum still carries a crest of six and seven feet in height. It is then lowered to form the great entrance, the porta prætoria of the castrum¹¹, the earth there rising in a ridge and sloping up to the crest of the bank about 10 yards in breadth. Then rising gradually as the ground falls away, it has a crest of ten feet in height for three or four yards at the south-eastern angle. And the whole range of this eastern vallum is fringed with a broken line of thorns above, shews the white mortar here and there peeping from under the green coat of turf, and near the south-eastern angle bellies forth with a thick buttress of earth continued for several yards along it.

The southern side, like the northern, is one hundred and seventy five yards in length. And the vallum sinks immediately from its height of ten feet at the eastern termination, successively declining till about fifty yards from the termination it is now reduced to the inconsiderable height of only two or three feet. And about sixty-seven yards from it there appears to have been a second gateway, the ground particularly sloping up to the crest of the bank for four or five yards at the point. The Roman castra had constantly about

the age of Agricola a gateway on the south and north as well as on the east and west. And such a gateway was particularly requisite in this castrum, in order to afford a ready passage from the station to the river, and the only one that could be secure in a siege. But about fifty-five yards from the south-western angle, the ground betwixt the station and the river falling briskly away to the west, the vallum, which continues in a right line along the ridge, necessarily rises, till it has a sharp slope of twenty yards in height at the angle. And the whole range of the southern vallum appears half-fronted half-crested at first with a broken hedge of thorns, a slender oakling rising from the ridge of the wall, and rearing its little head considerably over the rest, and runs afterwards in a smooth line nearly level for several yards with the ground about it, and just perceptible to the eye in a small rounded eminence of turf.

At the south-western point of the castrum the ground slopes away on the west towards the south as well as on the south towards the west. And the western side still runs from it nearly as it ran at first, having an even crest about seven feet in height, an even slope of turf for its whole extent, and the wall in all its original condition beneath. About forty yards from the north-western angle was the *Porta Decumana* of the station, the ground visibly sloping up the ascent of the wall in a large shelf of gravel, and running in a slight perceivable ridge from it. And beyond a level of forty-five yards, that still stretches on for the whole length of the side, it was bounded by the western boundary of the British city, the sharp slope of fifty yards to the morass below it.

On the northern side are several chasms in the original course of the vallum. And in one of them, about forty-eight yards from the eastern termination, must have been another gateway opening into the station directly from the great road to Ribchester. The remaining parts of the wall still rise five, six, and four feet in height, lined all the way with a thick uninterrupted hedge of thorns above, and exhibiting a broken chequered scenery to the eye below. Various parts of the rampart have been

been fleeced of their facing of turf and stone, and now shew plainly the internal structure of the wall; presenting to the eye the rough undressed stones of the quarry, the angular pieces of rock, and the smooth round flints of the river, all bedded in the strong mortar, and united by it into one. And the white brown patches of lime and mortar stand strikingly contrasted, on a general view of the wall, with the green turf that entirely conceals the level line of the rampart, and with the green moss that half skins over and half reveals the projecting points of the vallum.

The great ditch of the British city the Romans preserved along the course of their northern wall, for several yards beyond the eastern end of it, and for the whole beyond the western. They preserved it for more than thirty yards beyond the eastern end of their wall, and, as the present appearances of the ground fully testify, terminated it by an high bank, which was raised upon the course of the ditch, and which was sloped away into the former part of it.

The construction of the Roman castrum upon a smaller scale than that of the British town occasioned the former to recede from the eastern and western barriers of the latter. The garrison therefore carried on a new ditch from the north-western and north-eastern angles of their vallum in order to secure both. And, as the soldiers proceeded in the work, the centurions appointed to superintend it must have regularly examined the line of the ditch, and carefully measured the depth of the channel, with their ten-foot rods. The north-western ditch was made to slope away north and south, because the British bank and the morais below it were a sufficient defence on the west. But the north-eastern, having no such defence of a bank and a morais before it, was sloped away east and west, and for the same reason, was sunk to a much greater depth than the other. This sinks about five feet in depth, and that only about two and a half. Both however were carried on along a part only of their respective sides. The north-western return was continued only about thirty-five yards in breadth, and filled up in length the whole space between the Roman rampart and the British bank.

And

And the north-eastern was extended as many yards in breadth and about seventy-five in length, even up to the great road of entrance into the station.

¹ TACITUS c. xx. Civitates — præfidijs castellisque circumdatæ. Here the word *Circumdatæ* plainly shews the common opinion to be false, which fixes the generality of these forts along the line of Hadrian's future wall. — ² See b. l. ch. iii. sect. 1. &c. — ³ Vegetius lib. iii. c. 3. edit. 1670. *Vestaliæ Clivorum* in 2 V. — ⁴ Horsey p. 109. But this was not (as Horsey supposes it to be) peculiar to the Romans as natives of Italy. More than half of the Romans in the island were natives of colder countries than Italy, as the Gauls the Batavians the Frieslanders &c. &c. (See Horsey's inscriptions). And the human constitution, as such, must have naturally affected a southerly position in the cold bleak and wooded state of our island at that period. — ⁵ Vegetius lib. iii. c. 8. and Cæsar p. 90. — ⁶ Itin. Cur. p. 100. and Camden c. 875. — ⁷ Vegetius lib. iii. c. 8. *Super quem ad similitudinem muri et pinnæ et propugnacula componuntur.* — ⁸ See also Camden p. 624. for *cementum lateritiis frustulis intritum* at Ambleside, and see Itin. Curios. p. 96. for the other. — ⁹ Vegetius lib. iii. c. 8. — ¹⁰ Plates in Itin. Cur. See also Horsey p. 145. and Phil. Trans. 1759. p. 13, &c. — ¹¹ Vegetius lib. i. c. 23. — ¹² Grævius tom. x. c. 944. — ¹³ Vegetius lib. iii. c. 8.

II.

THE new-erected fort in the Castle-field now became a stationary *castrum* of the Romans, and the Romans now settled a garrison within it. The new-erected fort in the Castle-field still retained the name of the ancient fortress upon it, and Mancenion was only changed into *MANCUNIVM*. And this small change in the appellation must obviously have resulted from a particularity in the pronunciation of the name among the Britons, as the name of the town upon the river Kennet was similarly

§

changed

changed into Cunetio by the Romans, and as the Kennet itself is still popularly denominated the Kunnet among the inhabitants of the neighbouring region.

The garrison appears to have once consisted, and we may therefore reasonably presume it to have ordinarily consisted, of a single cohort. Amid the period of uninterrupted peace which the Romans of Mancunium enjoyed to the time of their departure, there must always have been the same reason for keeping the same number of troops in the garrison. And in the Notitia we find seventeen different cohorts forming seventeen different garrisons in the kingdom.

The cohort which was stationed at Mancunium was Cohors Prima Frisiorum, an auxiliary cohort belonging to some legion, and the first which had been raised among the natives of Friesland. This cohort appears from an inscription which was discovered in the Castle-field to have been in garrison there. This cohort therefore we may reasonably presume to have resided there, as it certainly continued in the island, even to the final departure of the Romans from the station. The Romans seldom shifted the quarters of their troops within the island, as is clear to a demonstration from the history of the twentieth and the sixth legions and the first wing of the Asti. The first of these appears to have garrisoned Deva for nearly two centuries successively. And the two last appear to have resided at Eburacum and Condercum for nearly three.

The auxiliaries of a legion consisted both of infantry and of cavalry. The cavalry of the auxiliaries, which was double in number to the cavalry of the legion, was thrown into independent troops of four or five hundred men. The infantry of the auxiliaries was exactly the same in number with the infantry of the legion, and like it was divided into several cohorts. But the cohorts of the legion were ten in number, and the cohorts of the auxiliaries only eight. The eight cohorts of the Batavi are expressly mentioned by Tacitus as the auxiliaries of the fourteenth legion. And, upon a subject so minute in itself and so little explained by the Romans, such a mention,

mention, unopposed by any other evidence, must carry a decisive authority with it. And none of these eight cohorts was distinguished from the rest, as one of the legionaries constantly was, by the title of primary and a double complement of men. Each was distinguished only by the name of the people of whom it consisted, and by the order of succession in which it had been raised among them. Each must have contained nearly the same complement of men. And as the whole amount of the ten legionaries in infantry during the second, third, and fourth centuries was exactly six thousand one hundred men⁹, and the amount of the eight annexed auxiliaries was exactly the same, each cohort of the latter must have had seven hundred and sixty-two men. If therefore the first-raised cohort of the Frisians had, as we have every reason to suppose that every corps of Romans in the island ordinarily had¹⁰, its entire complement of men, the garrison of Mancunium must have ordinarily consisted of seven hundred and sixty-two foot-soldiers. But since about three hundred and fifty of these must have been regularly absent from the station, and have been fixed upon duty at some distance from it, as I shall shew hereafter¹¹, the real garrison could have been only about four hundred men. And eight men out of every century in it, thirty-two in all, must have continued upon guard in the Castle-field from six in the evening to six in the morning; being fixed at their posts within the castrum by the sound of the trumpet, being relieved every third hour by the sound of the horn, and being kept alert at their posts by the appointed walkers of the rounds¹².

The whole compass of the area within must have been filled with cabins constructed of timber upon foundations of stone, and roofed with tiles shingles or straw¹³. The pratorium, or the pavilion of the commandant, must have been erected in a superior style. The barracks of the rest must have been raised in regular lines on each side of it. And the several cabins of the centurions, and the standards of the centuries, must have risen regularly over the whole¹⁴. Each cabin of the soldiers was large enough to contain a band of eleven men, and eleven were quar-
tered

tered in each, ten under the government of one,* and the latter denominated the dean or the head of the band". Each cabin must have been large enough to have contained more, as it is evident from several inscriptions, and as it would be evident without them, that the Romans in general, the common soldiers as well as the officers, had their wives and children along with them. And the number of cabins in Mancunium must have been about fifty or sixty in the whole, including the hospital for the sick, the workhouse of the armourers, the magazine for the corn, and the repository for arms. Formed by these, one principal street must have crossed the area obliquely from east to west, and another, a subordinate one, obliquely from north to south. The former must have begun at the prætorian gate, have led to the front of the prætorium, and have terminated obliquely behind it at the decuman gate. The latter must have commenced at the water-gate, and have stretched away to the gate which opened into the road for Ribchester. And both these ways must have been particularly narrow. Such actually was the way which Mr. Horfeley measured exactly from one range of structures to another, betwixt the very visible foundations of the barracks at the station of Amboglanna or Burdofwald in Cumberland. The outer walls of the barracks were absolutely twenty-eight inches in thickness. And the clear opening between them was only thirty-two in width¹⁶.

* The name is differently read in Antoninus. Some MSS exhibit Mamucium, some Manucium, and others Mancunium; and the agreement of Richard (see b. I. ch. iii. f. 1.) with the MS. that presents the last reading shews Mancunium to be indisputably the right appellation. — Itin. Curios. p. 60. — See f. 3. — See b. I. ch. xii. f. 5. — Cheshire No. 3. in Horfeley, and Antonine's Itin. 2.; Ptolemy and Notitia, for York; and Horfeley p. 211. and Notitia. See also ch. vi. f. 4. and ch. xii. f. 5. b. I. — Horfeley p. 87. — Vegetius l. II. c. vi and vii. where he speaks expressly of the Ordinatio Legionis Antiquæ. — Hist.

lib. I. c. 59.—" Vegetius l. II. c. vi. and vii.—" See b. I. ch. vi. sect. 4.—" B. I. ch. vi. f. 2.—" Vegetius lib. III. c. viii.—" Vegetius l. II. c. xxiii. and Tabernacula vel Casæ l. II. c. x. and Horfeley p. 152.—" Vegetius l. II. c. xiii.—" Vegetius ib. See also Grævius tom x. c. mxxviii.—" Horfeley p. 152.

III.

THE open ground of the Castle-field, which extended itself on three sides around the barriers of the Roman station, must have been applied to a great variety of purposes.. Immediately without the vallum, and perhaps along the western level, must have been the stables of the officers and the slaughter-houses of the garrison. And all around the vallum many of the Roman officers and soldiers appear to have been interred. In the beginning of the last century was discovered a stone, which was the sepulchral monument of one of the officers, Candidus Fidefius, a centurion of the garrison that died here in his 21st year. It is delineated in the plate, and was inscribed

Dts Manibus	To the Shade
Centurionis Candidi Fidefii	Of the Centurion Candidus Fidefius
Annorum 20	Aged 20 years†
Mensium months
Dierum 4.	And 4 days.

About seventeen years ago a labourer collecting gravel near the eastern boundary of the Field, and on the upper edge of the slope, found an urn strongly bedded in the gravel and containing a quantity of bones. This was composed of fine clay, was neatly glazed both within and without, and, under a slight moulding which encompassed the upper part of it, had some unmeaning circles and some ill-wrought figures embossed upon it. It had no inscription. But from the appearance of the bones, which were extremely small and even as little as those of a chicken, the contents of the urn could never have belonged to any

any human being, and could have been the remains only of a favourite bird. And such remains have been equally found in an urn at a place which I shall hereafter shew to have been the antient *Cambodunum* of Yorkshire³, the bones being extremely small and yet evidently entire. An urn so filled is a singular discovery in itself, and is almost the only one of the kind that has been made within the island. And such an act of regard to a little favourite was never perhaps very common among a people, whose general genius was too much steeled to all the finer feelings of humanity by the regular philosophy of a perverted patriotism, the regular practice of a relentless heroism, and the regular attendance upon sanguinary diversions⁴.

In the spring of 1765 was found another sepulchral vessel at the same extremity of the Field, though on the lower part of the declivity, and among the artificial soil that had been heaped upon the perpendicular face of the natural ground. It was discovered about seven feet below the surface, at the bottom of a little hole, the diameter of which was little more than that of the vessel, and which had been filled up again with the shifted earth. There it rested on the rock, covered with a lid of the same and placed within two other vessels of much coarser materials, and containing a quantity of ashes. All were unwarily fractured before they were discerned, but nearly the whole of the former was preserved. This is a small urn, and not quite equal in capacity to a quart, containing only fifty-four solid inches and an half within. This must therefore have inclosed merely the ashes of a child. The above-mentioned circumstances of attentive care demonstrate the ashes to have been the child of a considerable officer in the garrison. And I have previously observed, that the Romans in general, the common soldiers as well as the officers, had their wives and children along with them. This sepulchral vessel however is not formed in the usual figure of an urn, but exactly on the model of a modern Basin. Urns of such a configuration are a little uncommon, but have been discovered at London, in Cornwall, and in other places. This is composed of very fine clay, and is similar to,

but more brightly coloured than, the brown china of Staffordshire. This and the other urns we must obviously presume to have been fabricated where they were found, there being in all probability a pottery more or less considerable at every station. And our pottery at Mancunium, which might be supplied with proper clays from many places in the precincts of Manchester, seems plainly from this specimen of its skill to have been a very considerable one, and to have had very considerable artists engaged in it. This coral-coloured vessel is ornamented with various figures and devices, all equally fanciful and unmeaning, and has the name of the maker embossed upon it. Upon the bellying part of the bowl, and just above the little circle on which it stands, is written in small Roman capitals *ADVOCISI.* And it is plainly the Romanized name of a foreigner, and pretty certainly the name of the Frisian master-potter to the Frisian garrison.

Other or the same parts of the ground were employed in the support of military discipline, by the erection of honorary monuments and the infliction of disgraceful punishments upon them. The infliction of punishments must have been confined to the ground which lies on the western side of the station, the military delinquents being conducted through the *Porta Decumana* of the camp, and punished immediately without the western vallum. And at the execution of such punishments as were capital the musicians of the garrison assisted, and continued all the time sounding the charge of war. But the erection of honorary monuments was probably confined to no part. Few probably were erected in any. And only one has been discovered. It was discovered in the beginning of the last century, but was removed or destroyed before the middle of it. The inscription however had been previously copied by the learned Warden of the Collegiate Church, and was inserted in the last edition of the *Britannia* as I have delineated it in the plate. This inscription obviously mentions the first cohort of the Frisians, and incontestably proves it to have been stationed in the Castle-field. This, the important part of the inscription, is certain

certain. The rest is not so. The former part of it is thus read by Horsley, Cohors Prima Frisiorum, and thus by Ward, Cohortis Prima Frisiorum; as the latter part is thus read by both, Centurioni Marco Savonio Stipendiorum 23.^o. But both are mistaken in part. Neither has remarked the very remarkable vacancy betwixt the letter P and the figures xxiii. There something has been evidently erased by time which must be supplied in the reading. And as that erasure cannot be supplied by the word Stipendiorum at large, because it is either expressed by the abbreviature SP or was not expressed at all, it must be supplied with some other word which will agree with the figures xxiii. The interposition of such a word betwixt the letters and the numerals must have entirely precluded any connection betwixt the one and the other. And the former can never be considered as the abbreviature of Stipendiorum at all. They can be considered only as the initial letters of two distinct words, and as put for Sepulchrum posuit. And both these words occur in inscriptions upon the sepulchral stones of the Romans among us. Nor is the name of the centurion, as the above-mentioned criticks have given it, Marcus Savonius, but, as the inscription undeniably shews it to be, Marcus Savo. And the critick has surely no right to suppose a corruption when there is no reason to make a correction, or an abbreviation when there is no occasion for an addition. Thus stated, the former part of the inscription must be thus read, Cohors prima Frisiorum Centurioni Marco Savoni sepulchrum posuit, The first Cohort of the Frisiani placed this sepulcher for Marcus Savo the Centurion: and the latter part must be thus supplied, Vixit annos 23, He lived 23 years. And, thus inscribed, the stone appears to have been neither a monument of honour to the living nor a cenotaph to the dead. It appears to have been an honorary monument erected over the grave of Marcus Savo, who was a young Frisian officer in the first Frisian cohort, and who died in his twenty-fourth year. And it appears to have been erected by the common act of the garrison, in an honourable regard to the memory of an hopeful though subordinate officer.

* See Patricius in Grævius tom. x. — * Britannia edit. 1607. p. 611. — * See b. I. ch. iv. sect. 1. — * Augustus raised a tomb over his horse, Pliny lib. viii. c. 42; and Hadrian buried his hunter Borysthenes, Dio p. 1159. See also an account of a tomb with an inscription to a mule discovered at Rome, in Montfaucon's Italian Diary p. 83. Henley's 2d edit. And see an inscription taken from Fabretti to a Roman buried with his hunting-nets, hunting-spear, two dogs, a boar, a stag, and a wolf, in Horsley p. 340. — * See b. I. ch. ix. sect. 2. — * See also Wren's Parentalia p. 266. — Among many fragments of vessels that have been discovered upon the opposite bank of the river and on the site of Mr. Walford's house, was an unglazed fragment of a massy Amphora, having VABEO, the name of another potter, inscribed rudely upon its handle: and we have Phœbio upon a vessel at Rome in Montfaucon's Italian Diary p. 98: and Vibia on a sepulchral inscription in Horsley p. 328. — And within the circle on which the Mancunian vessel stands are some characters rudely scratched with a sharp tool, and seeming to form Avittii, perhaps the name of the person whose ashes the urn contained. And in Phil. Trans. 1759. p. 13. we have a tin Patera thus rudely inscribed with a tool. The vessel is preserved at the manor-house of Worsey. — * Vegetius lib. i. c. 23. — * Vegetius lib. ii. c. 12. — * Mr. Hollingworth's MS. in the publick library of Manchester p. 3, a rude Essay towards an History of the Town, and written about the year 1650. — * Horsley p. 301 and 351. — * See Sepulchrum in an inscription No. 8. Westmoreland, and Posuit and Ponendum curavit in p. 273, p. 303, p. 274, p. 322, and Oxfordshire, in Horsley.

IV.

The Roman garrison of Mancunium had undoubtedly some particular structure set apart for the periodical services of religion. This however must have been within the walls of the station, and merely a cabin of the same construction with the
rest,

Three Roman Inscriptions found at Manchester.

From Camdon.

3 CANDIDI.
FIDES. XX.
III.

The Bowl at Worsley.



By a Scale of three-fourths.

COHO.I.FRISIN
3 MASAVONTIS
P. XXIII.

H. Clarke del.

From Camdon.

J. Taylor sculp.

Inscribed to the Rev. Mr. Ashton, Fellow of Christ-College Manchester.

rest, but appropriated entirely to the offices of publick devotion. This must have been near to the great pavilion of the commander and the great standard of the garrison, the latter being always planted close to the former¹. Near to both was regularly a temple or chapel in every station. And in it several altars were erected and religious rites performed².



But in every station private altars were occasionally raised as private gratitude for past or private supplication for future favours directed. These seem never to have been erected within the area of the station. There was never any room for such erections within. They were fixed without, and in such places as fancy or convenience recommended.

But of these, or of such as stood within the temple, only one has been discovered at Mancunium³. And that has a curious inscription upon the plane of it, which may be seen in the annexed plate. It was erected, as the inscription witnesses, by Lucius Senecianius Martius, a centurion of the sixth legion, and of that particular brigade in it which for its gallantry was sur-named the Victorious, which passed over from Germany to Britain about the year 120⁴, and which marched into Scotland before 140⁵.

The route which this legionary brigade must necessarily have taken into Scotland from the south was either by London to Lincoln York and Binchester on the east, or by London to Litchfield Manchester and Penrith on the west. These were the only roads which the Romans then had into the north⁶. And by these the legionaries must have marched in several divisions. The garrisons of the larger stations must otherwise have been distressed, and the garrisons of the smaller must have been rendered utterly unable, to assist them the requisite quarters. And while one of the divisions perhaps halted at Mancunium, a centurion of the corps took the opportunity of erecting this altar.

Such I apprehend to be actually the date of the altar, more ancient perhaps than any other altar, more ancient almost than any other monument, in the whole compass of Roman Britain. And to so high a date every circumstance in the inscription per-
fectly

fectly accords, the structure of the letters in general, the punctuation and complication of some of them, and the centurial mark in the middle. The letters are well-cut and well-rounded, and better in both respects than the generality of the characters in the inscriptions of Antoninus Pius¹. I mention not the inscriptions of Hadrian or any preceding Emperor, because the only two that are certainly coeval with Hadrian, and the only three that are certainly previous to him, have been all so inaccurately copied, that we cannot judge concerning the structure of their characters at all. The points also, being merely the round dots or periods, certainly bespeak an higher antiquity than the angular triangular and leaf-like points of Antoninus's inscriptions; as the use of the periods only in the former has certainly more the cast of antiquity, than the mixture of all four in the latter². And the complications for UN in the first line and for VA in the second are certainly as little involved and modern as those for NT for DR and for IO in the inscriptions of Antoninus³.

The centurial mark indeed may seem by its uncommon form to fix a late date to our inscription. So thought at least a considerable critick in antiquities⁴. But so he thought for want of sufficient attention. The centurial mark must have been originally CENT, CEN, or CE; and the letters of the last were often inverted to distinguish it from the signatures of prefix names. The centurial mark therefore thus inverted became , and the moment that complications began was formed into a common character that partook equally of both, the very character which appears upon the Mancunian altar. This is certainly older, because it is certainly nearer to the original mark, than , the centurial mark of Antoninus⁵. This occurs not upon any other inscription within the island; but occurs with some little variation upon many on the continent⁶. Within the island we have no inscriptions, except the ill-copied five which I have previously mentioned, that carry any higher date than the reign of Antoninus. And if this centurial mark had been the invention of a later age, it must necessarily

cessarily have appeared upon some of the many inscriptions that we have of those ages.

Erected then about the year 120, this altar was consecrated by the centurion to Fortune, in grateful acknowledgement to the Divinity that had so often preserved him in the hour of danger. To this Deity have several altars been erected in Britain by the hand of mistaken piety. We have three consecrated to Fortune alone, a fourth to Fortune and other Deities, and a fifth to the Fortune of the Emperor, and all five in supplication of future favours. And we have three others erected in gratitude for past, the Mancunian altar, and one which was discovered about thirty years ago at Netherby in Scotland, being inscribed to Fortune the Preserver, and another which was discovered in Cumberland being inscribed to Fortune the Redux or Re-conductor". And it is a very remarkable particular, that four of these were erected by persons who were or had been of the same corps, and even of this the sixth legion, the above-mentioned altar at Manchester, another lately discovered at Cambodunum", a third erected by Julius Ralticus, and a fourth by Audacius Romanus; and that the two first and the last of these were erected by centurions of that legion".

But it is more observable in this altar, though it has never been observed by any of the numerous descanters upon it, that it has no focus for the sacrificial fire. It is evident therefore, that no victims were designed to be consumed, no libations to be poured, and no incense to be burnt upon it. Two others only of the same nature have been discovered within the island, the one dedicated to Jupiter and the Emperor at Dorchester in Oxfordshire, and the other, like this, to the Goddess Fortune at Carrawburgh in Cumberland". And all these three must have been entirely appropriated either to the oblation of prayers from them, or to the presentment of the fruits of the ground upon them, or to both.

Erected upon one of these designs, the Manchester altar seems to have stood near the eastern extremity of the Castle-field, and perhaps on the edge of the avenue that led up to the eastern

gate of the camp. Thence certainly it had been thrown down the rocky bank of the river into the channel below. Luckily it fell into a soft part of the channel, and was not broken by the fall. And there it lay undisturbed and unknown for many ages, the lettered side lying upon the ground, and an oak spreading out its roots above it. In that situation was it found in the year 1612". The stone is twenty-seven inches and a quarter in length, fifteen and a quarter in breadth, and nearly eleven in thickness; and, what is a full argument of the haste with which it was originally formed, and remarkably coincides with the supposition concerning its date before, it has neither capital nor base, and only a large plane in front bordered on either side by a molding. It is charged with a common præfericulum on the left edge and with a common patera on the right. And it is now carefully preserved by the worthy and learned George Lloyd Esq; in the neighbouring hall of Hulme.

* Grævius tom. x. c. 1044. compared with Vegetius lib. iii. c. 8.—* Grævius c. 1044.—* Dr. Stukeley has converted this altar into two, *Itin. Cur.* p. 55.—* Gale's *Antonine* p. 47.—* Horfeley Scotland No. 4. and p. 79.—* See b. I. ch. v. sect. 4. * Horfeley Scotland Fig. 1, 3, 16, 25, and 26.—* Horfeley Scotland Fig. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.—* Horfeley Scotland Fig. 2 and 25. and Northumberland Fig. 7. See also the Imperial Inscriptions in Gruter and Reinesius.—* Horfeley p. 189. and plate No. 1. p. 189.—* See Horfeley Northumberland No. 71.—* See *Urfatus*, where it also appears in its natural position.—* Phil. *Trans.* 1763. p. 134. and Horfeley Northumberland Fig. 32. p. 240, and Cumberland Fig. 68. See also a bath or an altar in it dedicated to Fortune in Yorkshire (Horfeley Fig. 1, and p. 352).—* See b. I. ch. iv. sect. 3.—* Horfeley Northumberland Fig. 55 and 78.—* Horfeley Northumberland Fig. 32, p. 218, and Oxfordshire Fig. 1. p. 537.—* See Mr. Hollingworth's MS. p. 3-

V.

MANY coins have been occasionally discovered about the station in the last and present century, and many have been lately found in the precincts of the town. But none of the pieces were uncommon. And one of them was of that species of brass coins or medals which have C. CAESAR DICTATOR upon one side and VENI VIDI VICI within a laurel wreath upon the other, the well-known forgery of modern craft, and the mintage of the famous Paduan.—A large Roman ring of gold has also been discovered at the station.—And about fifty years ago was thrown up by the plough a large sword of iron in very good conservation, as it is delineated in the annexed plan, and five feet five inches and a quarter in length. The handle is eighteen inches and a quarter in length and four inches and a quarter in circumference, lined all round with some soft pieces of wood, and covered over with leather above; is terminated by a large round ball of iron, about a pound in weight, at one extremity; and is crossed by an iron guard, twenty inches and a quarter in length, at the other. The blade, which is forty-seven inches in length, carries a double edge, is nearly two inches in breadth at the guard, and tapers gently away to a sharp point. And the whole weapon, lighter than the stone-made Celt described before, and equally with the Celt designed to be wielded by both hands together, is seven pounds and eleven ounces in weight. The curiosity is undoubtedly Roman, is very like the sword that is described upon a Roman monument discovered in London and reposed at Oxford, and is now in the possession of Thomas Birch Esq. of Ardwick.

But while the whole area of the Castle-field was thus applied to a variety of uses, the low level of the ground which is di-

rectly to the west of it must have been employed as a pasture by the garrison. Lying along the fertilizing currents of the Medlock and the Irwell, and just under the high bank of the station, it must have afforded them an excellent pasture. Such they must necessarily have wanted in the immediate vicinity of the Castle-field. Such therefore they must have readily embraced in this, and have constantly turned the live stock of the garrison into it. Bounded by the two streams on two sides and an half, and terminated by the stationary morais and an hedge on the rest, it must have contained an ample extent of ground and sufficient for the use of the garrison. And there the cattle of the Romans must have continued in safety, ranging along the fruitful level of the well-watered peninsula, and feeding under the immediate eye of the garrison; a ready supply for the consumption of every day, and constantly recruited by other supplies from the more distant parts of the country^{*}.

^{*} Itin. Curios. p. 55.— A Roman sword was also dug up a few years ago at Badbury in Dorsetshire (Camden c. 63).— See B. I. ch. vi. sect. 2.

C H A P. III.

I.

THE only accounts that had descended to us concerning the Roman stations and the Roman roads within the island in the year 1757 were the Geography of Ptolemy, the Itinerary of Antoninus, the Imperial Notitia, and the Anonymous Chorography. But in that year the science of Roman antiquities received an extraordinary illumination from the discovery of a work, which contains a very curious account of Roman Britain, and exhibits to us a new Itinerary for the whole of it. And, what infinitely enhances the value of the work to a Roman-British antiquarian, the Itinerary is more antient than that of Antonine, is more extensive in its design, and is more circumstantial in its execution.

This appears to have been the surprising collection of a monk in the fourteenth century, who, having the spirit to travel, had the good fortune to meet with and the good sense to preserve these invaluable remains. But in an age when general curiosity was little awake and antiquarian curiosity had slumbered on for ages, being perhaps originally confined within a few MSS, those being most probably reduced to one, and that transported out of the kingdom, to which alone it had any relation; the work was in the most imminent danger of perishing for ever. In this state Mr. Bertram an English gentleman discovered it at Copenhagen in 1747, and immediately acquainted Dr. Stukeley with the discovery. Struck with the nature of the work, a copy of which had been transmitted to him, and with a copy of the hand-writing, which Casley the Keeper of the Cottonian Library pronounced to be of the fourteenth century, the Doctor solicited and Mr. Bertram made a publication of it. In 1757 Dr. Stukeley published a translation of the Itinerary with a comment in quarto from the transcript. And in the beginning of the subsequent year

year the whole was printed at Copenhagen from the original MS, and a few copies of the work were immediately sent as presents into England *.

The collector was Richard, a native of Cirencester but a monk of Westminster, and the author of many other historical and theological pieces. That the work is genuine, needs no proof. All the embodied antiquarians of the fourteenth and the three succeeding centuries could not have forged so learned a detail of Roman antiquities.

Whence Richard collected it, we know not; or whether he found his authorities in England or at Rome, to which latter place he had a special licence to travel *. He has thought proper to say nothing of either. He only refers, and he refers frequently, to his vouchers, to Ptolemy and his cotemporary writers, the tradition of the druids, antient monuments, documents, and histories *. And the Itinerary in particular he declares himself to have collected from some remains of records which had been drawn up by the authority of a certain Roman general, and had been left by him for the use of succeeding ages *.

The date of these records must be the date of Richard's Itinerary. Dr. Stukeley carries the æra of both to the period of Agricola's command in the island, whom he supposes to be the Roman officer here spoken of, and to whose time he thinks the general aspect of this Itinerary to look *. But these are surely reasons of too feeble a nature to support so weighty a conclusion. And the many parts of the work, as many there are, which are certainly later than the age of Agricola, directly refute the supposition.

The eighteen Itinera which Richard has presented to us all obviously unite to form an entire Itinerary. No single part stands forth of a different texture from the rest. One uniform

* The title of the book is *Britannicarum Gentium Historiæ Antiquæ Scriptores tres, Ricardus Corinensis, Gildas Radonicus, Nennius Banthorensis*; and at the close it is said to be printed Hæmiae, Typis Ludolphi Henrici Lallii, Anno salutis 1758, Mense Januario: and Dr. Stukeley's Translation and Comment was printed for C. Corbet in Fleet-street, 1757. One copy was sent to the Bodleian Library at Oxford.

colour plainly tinctures over the whole. And the whole Itinerary plainly refers itself to one period. It was certainly composed after the wall of Hadrian, and even after the vallum of Antoninus, were erected, because it expressly mentions both. This necessarily reduces the date of the Itinerary below the year 138, the first of Antoninus's reign. It was certainly composed when the Romans retained their stations on Antoninus's wall, when they retained their stations beyond it, and when they had prosecuted their roads and their conquests along the eastern coast of the island as far as Inverness. Two of the eighteen Itinera traverse all the country betwixt Inverness and the friths. . And as such a road could not have been prosecuted or such an Itinerary drawn up in the days of Agricola, who plainly advanced very little beyond the river Tay, so could neither have been done much later than the reign of Antoninus Pius. We have the positive authority of the same author, who speaks undoubtedly from records, and whose particular mention of the year is a full argument that he does, that in the year 170 the Romans deserted all the country which lay to the north of Antoninus's vallum.

This reasoning therefore confines the date of the Itinerary within a small circle of years. Drawn up certainly after the year 138, it was as certainly drawn up before the year 170. And this necessarily obliges us to assign the construction of the roads beyond the Tay, and the composition of an Itinerary for them, to the only one that could possibly execute either, Lollius Urbicus, the well-known governor of the island under Antoninus Pius. This officer, being sent into the island in 140, immediately passed the former bounds of the empire, and invaded the country that lay to the north of the two friths. Betwixt the friths Agricola had formerly erected a line of forts. These had not been destroyed; and Lollius immediately joined them together by a long vallum. Agricola raised his prætoriana of forts before he advanced beyond the Tay to the Grampian mountains; and Lollius seems to have acted in the same manner. He seems to have erected his wall in the year 140, and

and then to have extended his conquests beyond it. And these he appears to have prosecuted along the eastern coast of the island as far as Inverness.

History, or Time the destroyer of History, has been very unjust to the memory of this gallant officer, and has scarcely given us any intimation of his signal victories. But that Lollius gained considerable advantages over the northern Britons, is plainly evinced by the testimony of Richard, who expressly mentions the glories that he gained by his victories in Britain, and by the concurrent testimony of Capitolinus, who says that he conquered the Britons ". These victories also were esteemed so important and honourable by Antoninus, that he assumed the name of Britannicus upon his coins ". And that Lollius extended his conquests to Inverness, may be easily shewn. " He only to the days of Ptolemy can be supposed to have passed the limits of Agricola's conquests, and to have fixed a garrison at Inverness. And he did it; a Roman station being actually there in the days of Ptolemy, and expressly mentioned by him under the name of *Πτερόλον Στρατοπέδον* or the winged camp. That this is Inverness, the Geography of Ptolemy more darkly suggested ", and the Itinerary of Richard most clearly evinces ". And here, as at the utmost boundary of the Roman empire and the most northerly point of accessible ground, Ptolemy or some of the Roman officers made the astronomical observation which he has given us in the second chapter of his eighth book.

To Lollius the Romans owed the subjection of most of the countries beyond the friths, and Ptolemy the opportunity of having an astronomical observation made at Inverness. To Lollius the Romans owed the continuation of their military roads from the former to the latter, and we the Itinerary which measures those roads and which Richard so happily preserved. And in this Itinerary Lollius has left an useful monument to posterity; useful to the memory of his own actions, which it has been the means of rescuing from oblivion and of which it will be now a perpetual record, and very useful to the antiquarian critic. The very discovery of a new Itinerary would have been of considerable

able importance to the science of antiquities, had it been of as late a date as Antonine's confessedly is, and even as much later as from the mention of Constantinople and Maximianople it actually appears to be¹. The very discovery of a new Itinerary would have been of considerable importance to the science of antiquities, had it been even as short as Antonine's apparently is in its notices and as uncertain as that in its numerals. By the collation of one with the other, much that was wrong might have been rectified, and much that was doubtful might have been ascertained. But we have it with almost every possible advantage. The numerals are in general exact, the notices given in it are many and curious, and the date of it is equally certain and early. It was drawn up as early as the middle of the second century, in a period when we have scarce any informations concerning the island from the Roman historians, and when the Roman empire within it was in its greatest glory and at its farthest extent; when the Romans had two walls stretching across the island; when they possessed all the north of it to the two friths, and all the north-east up to Inverness; and when they had one great road that nearly traversed the whole island from Inverness to the Land's-end².

This Itinerary has thrown a particular lustre upon the Roman antiquities of Lancashire, and has acquainted us with one whole road, a part of another, and two or three stations, that we were ignorant of before. Under the guidance of this and the other Itinerary, and with the occasional assistance of Ptolemy the Notitia and Ravennas, I shall now endeavour to point out the sites of the Roman stations in general within the county, to describe such in particular, whether within or without the county, as were the first stages from Mancunium, and, only mentioning the roads that issue from the former, carefully trace through our own parish the roads that extend betwixt the latter³.

¹ Stukeley's Comment p. 6.—² P. 3, 4, 18, 24, 28, 29, and 32.—

³ p. 35. Ex fragmentis quibusdam a duce quodam Romano consignatis et posteritati relictis.—⁴ P. 12 and 71.—⁵ The only dissonant parts

parts are these, which sufficiently of themselves betray the interpolating hand of Richard: Iter 1, Verolamia municipio 12 [unde fuit Amphibalus et Albanus Martyres]; Iter 3, Camolodunū Colonia 9 [Ibi erat templum Claudii, Arx triumphalis, et imago victoriae Deae]; Iter 4, Eboracō Municip. [olim Colonia Sexta]; Iter 11, Isca Colonia 9 [unde fuit Aaron Martyr]; &c.—^o See No. 1. Appendix 4, 9, and 10 Itinera. —¹ Tacitus Vit. Agric. c. 24, 29, and 38. —² P. 52; and see b. I. ch. xii. c. 2. ³ Richard p. 52. —⁴ Tacitus c. xxiii. —⁵ Horfeley p. 158. —⁶ Tacitus c. xxiii and xxix. —⁷ Horfeley p. 203 and 52. —⁸ Richard p. 52. and Hist. Aug. Scriptores p. 19. Paris 1620. —⁹ P. 50 of Casaubon's remarks upon Capitolinus ibid. —¹⁰ Horfeley accordingly conjectured it to be a little to the north of Inverness. —¹¹ Iter 9 and 10. —¹² P. 9, a Constantinopoli usque &c. and p. 20. Bertrius's edition. See a mistake therefore in Gale, Horfeley, and others, who merely from the title of the work, and in direct contradiction to these passages, have supposed it to be written by one of the emperours that bore the name of Antoninus, and particularly under Caracalla the last of them. —¹³ In Richard is a Map of Britain drawn up by himself (as he says) secundum fidem monumentorum perveterum. This Mr. Bertram thinks superiour to all the rest of Richard's Commentary for the curiousness and antiquity of it (Preface). This is a great curiosity undoubtedly, being the oldest map of the island that is now extant, and the only old map of Roman Britain. Maps of the island however were not uncommon in Richard's time. He himself speaks of some as recentiore ævo descriptas and generally known (p. 3). And this is but of little value. It is frequently inaccurate. It frequently contradicts its own Itinerary. —¹⁴ Richard also drew up an History of England under the title of Speculum historiale de gestis regum Angliæ. The hope of meeting with discoveries as great in the Roman-British and in the Saxon history as he has given us concerning the preceding period induced me to examine the work. A MS. copy is preserved in the publick library at Cambridge, Ff. 1, 28, containing 516 pages. But my expectations were greatly disappointed.

The learned scholar and the deep antiquarian I found sunk into an ignorant novice, sometimes the copier of Huntingdon, but generally the transcriber of Geoffrey. Deprived of his Roman aids, Richard shewed himself to be as ignorant and as injudicious as any of his illiterate contemporaries about him.

II.

To delineate the British and Roman-British geography of the island, has frequently attracted the attention and frequently engaged the application of our antiquarians. But their attention and application have been hitherto exerted to little purpose. A cloud has settled deep and dark upon the general face of our island in those antient days. And the few scattered rays with which it has been hitherto enlightened have only served to make the darkness more visible to us. The Commentary of Richard however has now happily dispelled the thicker part of the gloom. The position of each British tribe, and the extent of each Roman-British province, may now be ascertained with sufficient precision. And the whole interior disposition of Roman-Britain, before as well as after the conquest of the Romans, may now be sketched out with a pretty accurate hand. Some little darkness must always be expected to infold the antiquarian in his searches. And he must always oblige himself to the task of thinking over his work.

The Roman conquests within the island were divided in general into higher or western and into lower or eastern Britain, the one being separated from the other by a line that was carried through the length of the island. The Roman conquests in the island were divided in particular into the six provinces and distinguished by the six denominations of Britannia Prima, Britannia Secunda, Flavia, Maxima, Valentia, and Vespasiana. And a regular Itinerary, the first perhaps of Britain, appears to have been drawn up by Lollius for the whole.

* Britannia Prima comprehended all the country that lies to the south of the Thames and the Severn, and of a line drawn from Creeklade or its vicinity upon the one to Berkeley or its neighbourhood upon the other, included eleven nations of the Britons, and contained about thirty-six stations subject to Rutupæ or Richborough the provincial capital. The Cantii generally possessed the exact compass of the present Kent, being bounded by the Thames on the north and the Lemanus or Rother on the west, and acknowledging Durovernum, Cantiorpolis, or Canterbury for their capital; but once crossed the boundary of the Thames, and annexed London and all the southern regions of Middlesex to their dominions. The Regni resided in Suffex and Surrey; and Regnum, Regentium, or Chichester must have been their metropolis. Immediately to the north of these were the Bibrôces or Rhemi; who originally occupied only the south-eastern parts of Berkshire, from the Loddon or its neighbourhood on the west to the current of the Thames on the east, and had Bibrôicum, Bibracte, or Bray for their capital; but who afterwards subdued the Regni, and made Noviomagus, a town of the Regni in Surry, their metropolis. Contiguous to these on the west were the Atrebatæ, spreading nearly over all the remainder of Berkshire; were bounded by the Loddon or its neighbourhood on the south-east, by the curving bank of the Thames on the north-west and west, and by the hills of East-Isle Lambourne and Ashbury or their vicinity on the south; and acknowledged Calleva or Wallingford for their chief city. The Segontiaci inhabited the little remainder of Berkshire and the adjoining north of Hampshire, the Cusæus or Kennet flowing through their dominions in the former, and their principal town being Vindomis Vindogum or Silchester, in the latter. The Proper Belgæ enjoyed the rest of Hampshire, held all Wiltshire except a small district upon the north-west, and had Winchester for their Venta or head-town. But the Proper Belgæ appear to have attacked the Segontiaci before the Roman arrival, and to have seized their dominions, all the possessions of the latter being pretty plainly attributed to the former by Ptolemy. The Durotriges

or

or Morini lived in Dorsetshire, and had Durium, Durnovaria, or Dorchester for their capital. The Hædui filled all Somersetshire to the Estuary Uxella, Bridgewater Bay, or the river Ivel on the south, the south-west of Gloucestershire to the hills of Wotton-Under-Edge or its vicinity, and the north-west of Wilshire to the Avon and to Creeklade. These however appear evidently from Ptolemy to have been subdued by the Belgæ, their country being expressly ascribed to that people by Ptolemy. The Cimbri extended over the rest of Somersetshire, except a small part to the east of the Thone, and along the north of Cornwall as far as the river Cambala, the Camel, or Padstow Harbour. The Carnabii spread over the remainder of the north of Cornwall, and over all the south-west as far as Falmouth Haven. And the Damnonii possessed originally the rest of Somersetshire, the rest of Cornwall, and all Devonshire. But before the coming of the Romans the Damnonii had subdued both the Carnabii and Cimbri, and had usurped their dominions.

Britannia Secunda comprized all the country that lies beyond the Severn and the Dee, contained three tribes of the Britons, and reckoned about twenty stations under Isca or Caerleon its capital. The Silures inhabited originally the counties of Hereford Radnor and Monmouth, and the small portion of Gloucestershire which is to the west of the Severne, and acknowledged Caer Gwent in Monmouthshire for their metropolis; but afterwards conquered both the Ordovices and the Dimetæ that bordered upon them. The Ordovices at the Roman invasion possessed all North-Wales, the counties of Montgomery Merioneth Caernarvon Denbigh and Flint, except a small part of the last county adjoining to Banhor, and belonging to the Carnabii; but previously possessed some adjoining regions of Flavia which shall be specified hereafter. And the Dimetæ inhabited all the rest of South-Wales, the counties of Cardigan Pembroke Carmarthen Glamorgan and Brecknock; and Muridunum or Caer-marthen was their capital.

Flavia, or (as it was first denominated) *Cæsariensis*, or (as it is therefore called in the Notitia) *Flavia Cæsariensis*, took in all

all the central regions of the island, was limited by the two other provinces on the south and west, and by the Humber the Don²² and the Mersey on the north, and had about eight tribes and fifty stations within it. The Trinobantes resided in the counties of Middlesex and Essex, Londinium or London being their metropolis²³. Beyond the Stour were planted the Iceni²⁴, consisting of two tribes. Of these the Cenomanni inhabited the counties of Suffolk and Cambridge, perhaps the north of Bedfordshire to the Ouse on the south, certainly the south of Northamptonshire to the Nen on the north, and absolutely the whole of Huntingdonshire and Norfolk, being limited on the north by the Nen, and having Eborac near Norwich for their Venta or first city. Of these the Coritanni occupied the remainder of Northamptonshire, all Leicestershire (except a narrow line of it on the west, which belonged to the Carnabii), the whole of Rutland Lincoln Nottingham and Derby counties, and the little portion of Yorkshire which is to the south of the Don²⁵, and acknowledged Raga or Leicester for their metropolis²⁶. The Cassii were originally masters only of all Hertfordshire, all or the rest of Bedfordshire²⁷, and the adjoining parts of Buckinghamshire²⁸, having Verulam in all probability for their capital; but before the Roman arrival extended their dominions, seized the kingdom of the Trinobantes and the country of the Dobuni²⁹, and made Camulodunum or Colchester in Essex their capital³⁰. The Dobuni or Lowlanders appear from their name to have first possessed only the south of Gloucestershire, and had Corinium or Cirencester in it for their capital; but afterwards extended their authority over the north of Gloucestershire and the south-west of Warwickshire, over all the extent of Worcestershire and Oxfordshire, and over the remainder of Buckinghamshire, reaching up to the western frontier of the Cassii³¹, and still retaining Corinium for their capital. The north of Gloucestershire and the whole of Warwickshire and Worcestershire were pretty certainly occupied by a people whom I shall mention hereafter³²; so the whole of Oxfordshire and the greatest part of Buckinghamshire were in all probability possessed by the

Ancalites". And the Carnabii spread over the rest of Flavia, and had Ureconium or Wroxeter for their capital".

"Valentia included all the country that was bounded by the two walls and the two seas, contained five tribes, and had ten stations under its capital. The Ottadini inhabited the whole extent of Northumberland, except the small region that was to the south of the wall, all Mersey, half of Tweedale, and all Lothian, being bounded by the wall of Antoninus on the north, the wall of Hadrian on the south", and the Tweed on the south-west, and having Bremenium or Riechester in Readisdale for their capital. The Gadeni occupied the little region of Cumberland that was beyond the wall, Tiviotdale, Tweedale up to the Tweed, and Cluydisdale as far at least as Lanerk on the north-west, having Curia, or Corsford by Lanerk, for their capital. The Selgovæ held all Anandale, Nithisdale; and Galloway up to the Dee, and perhaps the south-eastern side of Kyle and the south-western of Cluydisdale. Beyond the Dee resided the Novantes, spreading over all the rest of Galloway, and having Lucophibia or Whitern for their capital. And to the north of three of these tribes, the Novantes the Selgovæ and the Gadeni, were the Damnii, possessing all Carrick Cunningham and Renfrew, the rest of Kyle, and the remainder of Cluydisdale; a chain of mountains, formerly denominated Montes Ucelli or the Uchel Hills, running all along the south, the barrier betwixt them and their southern neighbours; and the vallum of Antoninus ranging along their northern border.

"All the region then which was bounded by the two seas, the wall of Hadrian on the north, and the Mersey the Don and the Humber on the south, and which contained the whole counties of Durham Lancaster and Westmoreland, all Yorkshire except a very small portion on the south, all Cumberland except a little angle on the north, and a narrow slip of Northumberland on the south, was entitled Maxima or (as the Notitia and Richard's Itinerary call it) Maxima Caesariensis". It comprized the Brigantes the Volantii and the Siltuati. It included about thirty stations, besides the line of the forts at the wall, and acknowledged

knowledgeed Eburacum for its metropolis. The Sifuntii inhabited the whole compass of our own county and the southern region of Westmoreland. The Volantii possessed the remainder of Westmoreland and Cumberland. And the Brigantes enjoyed the whole of Durham, and all Yorkshire to the Don and the Humber. The sixth Legion appears to have been settled at York as early as the year 140. And Eburacum appears to have been raised as early to that dignity under the Roman government which Iſeur or Aldborough had previously enjoyed under the British."

* Dio p. 794 and 795 compared with Ptolemy and Antonine. Mr. Camden, p. 111. edit. 1607, makes the higher part of Britain to be the southern and the lower to be the northern, carrying the former to about the Humber or the Mersey. But Mr. Horſeley inverts the plan, and makes the southern the lower and the northern the higher, for this one good reason, because Cæſar expreſſly calls the ſouthern the lower; p. 307 and preface p. 22. The true diviſion is certainly into eaſtern and weſtern, the legions at Caerleon and Cheſter being placed by Dio in the higher Britain, and the legion at York in the lower. And ſo Pliny places Ireland ſuper Britanniam (lib. iv. c. 16). And Roman Britain is naturally broken into eaſt and weſt Britain, a chain of hills running from the highlands of Scotland, and joining to the peak of Derby, the moorlands of Staffordſhire, the range of Edge-Hill in Warwickſhire, and the Chilterne in Buckinghamſhire. * Richard, p. 15, 17, 18, 19, and 20. In the delineation of this province Richard's map is pretty accurate in general. Dr. Stukeley's, prefixed to his comment upon Richard, which very falſely pretends to be an exact copy of the other, has totally omitted one tribe which appears in Richard's map and which ought to appear in both, the Carnabii of Cornwall, and has equally omitted the dotted lines that divide the kingdoms.— * See alſo Iter 1. of Richard.— * Somner's Roman forts in Kent p. 40, &c.— Ptolemy. He carries the Cantii to or nearly to the

the Attrebatæ, and places the Regni to the south of the Cantii.—⁶ Ptolemy. See Regnum in Iter 15 of Richard and 7 of Antoninus.—⁷ Ptolemy. The whole country of the Bibroces and of the Regni is given to the latter by Ptolemy and to the former by Richard, both considering them as one people after the conquest of the other, and Richard more accurately naming them by the appellation of the Conquering tribe.—⁸ Richard p. 20 and 24. Quæ intermissione Uxellæ amnis Heduarum regioni preestditur, and, Thamesis per fines Heduarum—in oceanum—influit.—⁹ Ischalis and Aquæ Calidæ.—So also Ptolemy places the Durotriges, not south-west, as he is generally translated, but to the south and west, of the Belgæ, ἀπο δυσμῶν καὶ μεσημέριαις, the Durotriges being to the south of the Belgæ of Somersetshire, and to the west of the Belgæ of Hampshire.—¹⁰ Uxella urbs is given to the Damnonii by Richard.—This Uxella is given to the Hedui by the map, in express contradiction to the account.—¹¹ Richard's map.—¹² Cenia urbs and Cenius fluvijs given to the Damnonii by Richard.—¹³ Uxella urbs, Richard.—¹⁴ Ptolemy and Richard p. 20. Damnonium Promontorium. The Damnonii are δυσμικῶτατοι or the most westerly tribe.—¹⁵ P. 21 and 22. In this province Richard's map is faulty, carrying the Ordovices into Radnorshire and giving them Magna. Dr. Stukeley has corrected the mistake, but has made others. He has at once inserted and misplaced the Heriri Montes, he has placed the Dimetæ to the south of the river Stuctia when he ought to have carried them beyond it to the Dovy, he has entirely omitted the Dovy, and he has neglected the dotted lines that limit the three kingdoms.—¹⁶ Civitas Silurum-Magna.—Richard p. 21.—¹⁷ B. I. ch. v. f. 3.—¹⁸ Richard p. 15, 24, 25, and 26. In this province Richard's map has committed two or three mistakes, giving Forum Dianæ to the Coitanni (or Coritanni) which belonged to the Cassii, and giving them also Bennonæ which belonged to the Carnabii, and Dornomagus which belonged to the Cenomanni. And Dr. Stukeley's is so confused, for want of the defining lines of the original, that it would be idle to criticize upon it.—¹⁹ Richard p. 25.—²⁰ Richard Iter 4.—²¹ Richard p. 25. and Iter 3. Ptolemy, who places the Cantii

in all the south of Middlesex, places the Trinoantes in Essex only, more easterly than the Iceni and along the æstuary of the Thames. But as the Trinoantes once certainly resided in Middlesex (see Richard p. 23), Ptolemy's account of the Cantii and the Trinoantes must certainly be taken from records of two different dates, and must therefore be referred to two different periods. See b. I. ch. xii. f. 2.—²² Richard Iter 3.—²³ Richard Iter 4. And in Richard Iter 18. is a station ad Fines, meaning undoubtedly Gravesborough upon the Don, the limits of Maxima and Flavia, and the borders of Yorkshire and Derbyshire.—²⁴ See b. I. ch. v. f. 3.—²⁵ Ptolemy, Salenæ.—²⁶ Richard's map.—²⁷ Dio p. 958. B. I. ch. ix. f. 1. and Richard p. 24.—²⁸ Dio p. 959. This tribe is also called Cattieuchlani in Ptolemy, a name that has greatly puzzled the etymologists, but which is only Catieu-chlan-i the clan of the Catti or Cassii.—²⁹ Finitimi Dobunis Cassii—Richard p. 24. And see Richard's map.—³⁰ B. I. ch. v. f. 3.—³¹ Cæsar p. 92.—³² See b. I. ch. iv. f. 2.—³³ Richard p. 15, 28, and 29. In this province Richard's map is inaccurate in one particular, and Dr. Stukeley's in many. In the former the Gadeni are carried greatly too far to the north, quite up to the Frith of Forth; and the Dampii are placed to the north of the Novantes and Selgovæ only, not to the north of the Gadeni as well as them. In the latter, the Ottadini, who should be extended along the sea from Severus's wall to the Frith of Forth, are placed to the north of the Tweed, and the Gadeni who lived to the west are placed directly to the south of them, and betwixt them and the wall. Coria the capital of the Gadeni is given to the Ottadini. And Bremenium the metropolis of the Ottadini is consigned to the Gadeni. The Selgovæ, who lived entirely to the east of the Dee, are even carried to the west of that river. And the Dampii are placed to the north of the Novantes only, being thrust up into Cunningham and Renfrew.—³⁴ Ptolemy (corrected) places the Novantes on the west, the Selgovæ to the east of them, the Dampii to the north and west of them, the Gadeni to the east of the Selgovæ, and the Ottadini to the east of the whole; as-

signing

signing thereby all Mers and Lothian to the Ottadini. And so Richard's map carries the Ottadini up to the Frith of Forth.—³⁵ Richard p. 15 and 27. The map of this province in Richard is very inaccurate. It places the Sistuntii along the sea-coast of Lancashire Westmoreland and Cumberland, and settles the Volantii at the back of them and at the foot of the hills. Such a position is absurd in itself. And it is refuted by the position of Volantium of Elenborough on the margin of the sea. But the map is still more inaccurate, placing Rerigonium not far from the mouth of the Alauna and a very little to the south of it, fixing Coecium a good way to the south and east of Rerigonium and to the north of the Belisama, and settling Portus Sistuntiorum at the mouth of the Alauna. For the absurdity of these positions see the following chapters. And Dr. Stukeley has added two other mistakes, extending the Alpes Peninæ through half of Valentia, confining the Sistuntii to Cumberland, laying the Volantii at the back of them, removing Rerigonium nearly from the mouth to the source of the Alauna, omitting the Belisama entirely, and putting Merseia flu: for Seteia.—³⁶ Iter 4.—³⁷ Ptolemy—and Richard p. 27.

HI.

IN the comprehensive history of that remarkable people the Romans, there are few particulars which so strongly betray their native grandeur of soul as the roads which they prosecuted over all the ample extent of their empire. They girt the whole globe as it were with new zones and new zodiacs in every possible direction. And the tables of Peutinger and the Itinerary of Antonine present us with a magnificent display of the whole.

The Romans, on their invasion of this country, must have certainly found several roads in the southern parts of the island, and among the Belgic colonies that lined the southern coast of it. These must have been previously laid out, though rudely,

for the public use. These must have been previously adapted, though indifferently, to the conveyance of the native commodities of the island to the ports, and to the introduction of foreign commodities from them. And this commercial intercourse, as well as the roads by which it was prosecuted, seem to have been extended much farther into the island than the highest ideas of our historical critics concerning its interior condition would allow us to apprehend. They seem to have been extended from the south-west into Suffolk on one side, and from the south-east into Cheshire on the other.

From the joint testimony of Richard's Itinerary and Bede's History it appears, that the Roman road which reaches from Sandwich to Caernarvon was distinguished among the Romans by the British name of Guetheling or Watling-street. This has been hitherto supposed to be not the original but a posterior name, and has long baffled all the analytical powers of etymology. But it is plainly derived, as Dr. Stukeley formerly conjectured it to be, from the same principle which gave name to the Ikening-street. Both were denominated from the people to whom they were carried, the latter confessedly from the Iceni of the eastern coast, and the former clearly from the Guetheli or Gatheli of Ireland. As the Ikening-street signifies the way which led to the Iceni, so the Watling-street imports the road which led to the Guetheli. And this British appellation of the road among the Romans attests it to have been previously a British road. Had it not been a British before it was a Roman road, as it could have had no name at all when the Romans took possession of the country, so could it never have adopted a British name afterwards among them. Had it not been a British before it was a Roman road, it could not possibly have adopted among them the particular appellation of Guetheling, as the inhabitants of Ireland were never known to the Romans, at all by the appellation of Guetheli. The Guetheling or Watling-street must have originally been denominated by the Britons Sarn Guethelin or the road of the Irish. And the Ikening-street must have been originally denominated Sarn Ikenia of the road.

road of the Iceni. * But as a merely Roman road would scarcely have received any appellation that related to the Iceni, as a merely Roman road would assuredly have received no appellation at all that related to the unconquered the unattempted Irish, so a merely Roman road could certainly have never received the appellation either of Guethelia or of Ikenin, these words being actually the British plurals of Guethel and of Iken. Such roads indeed as the Romans primarily constructed within the island, like the fortresses of the same origin, are plainly distinguished from such as they found already constructed by the obvious discriminations of their names. If from the Itinerary of Richard and the voice of tradition we have the British names of Guetheling and Ikening for two roads, from the same Itinerary and the same tradition we have the Roman names of the Julian way and the Fosse for two others. And the former are as evidently evinced to be British as the latter are to be Roman.

Thus were these two great roads originally undertaken and executed before the invasion of the Romans; undertaken for the purposes of British conveniency, and executed in the stile of British simplicity. Both must have been begun by the Belgæ of the southern countries, and, what is very extraordinary, both appear plainly to have been actually begun from the south. Till the Belgæ came over into Britain, either no commerce at all was pursued by the islanders, or the commerce was confined to a few promontories on the south-west and a few vessels from Phœnicia. The Belgæ were strongly actuated by a commercial spirit, and pursued its directions so vigorously, that, within a century from their first entrance into the island, the most westerly tribes of them certainly carried on a considerable commerce with the Phœnicians, and all of them afterwards a much more considerable one with the Romans of Narbonne, and the Greeks of Marseilles. In consequence of the latter, the native commodities of the island in the time of Augustus were regularly exported into Gaul, and conveyed by barges upon the rivers or by horses upon the roads across the Gallic continent to both. And at this period the Belgæ must have contrived and the Britons must

must have concurred in the construction of two great roads, which should traverse the central parts of the island, and should lead to such provinces as were the great treasures of the saleable commodities.

In the progress of commerce from the west, the Belgæ of Dorsetshire would naturally catch the enlivening spirit before their more easterly brethren of Kent. And, in the settlement of the staple at the isle of Wight, the Belgæ of Dorsetshire would be nearer to the animating centre of the commerce than their more easterly brethren of Kent. These therefore must have been the first to contrive and to execute the plan. They accordingly opened to themselves a communication with the Iceni of the eastern coast. But the Cantii certainly rivalled the Durotriges in commerce at the period of Cæsar's invasion, and must soon have copied their example. They copied it in a bolder style and upon a more extensive scale. They boldly opened to themselves a communication with the North-western parts of Britain and the British colonists of Ireland, that they might receive from them those supplies of cattle which Ireland now so remarkably furnishes, and which it must then have furnished in a much more remarkable degree. And such must have been equally the object of the Ikening-street. Such must have necessarily been the great object of both, while the riches of the Britons, like those of the patriarchs, consisted almost entirely in their cattle. And these roads must have probably occasioned the erection of several towns upon them, some raised by the tribes upon the confines, and others in the center, of their respective possessions; the former as fortresses to guard these great avenues into their dominions, and the latter as necessary places of refreshment for the cattle and their attendants so frequently passing along them.

The Britons must equally have constructed many other ways before the coming of the Romans, inferior indeed but public, and leading in different directions from one state to another, or connecting the different parts of the same state. The former must

must have necessarily existed as the marching-ways of the armies which were so frequently detached by one tribe against another. And the latter must have equally existed as the necessary chain of communication betwixt the several fortresses of the same tribe.

But neither the one nor the other, neither the smaller nor the greater roads, were likely to satisfy the desires or answer the exigences of the Romans, a polite and a politick nation, studious equally of private pleasure and of publick emolument. They therefore constructed new roads, two of them indeed and many others perhaps in the line of the British ways, but all of them upon plans much more beautiful and useful, and much better calculated for immediate convenience and a long duration.

These however were not, as our antiquarians have constantly supposed them to be, the admirable effects of Agricola's command in the island. In a country like this, where forests must have risen and morasses have spread betwixt station and station, roads must have been nearly as necessary as stations, and were certainly therefore nearly cotemporary with them. As the Romans prosecuted their conquests within the island, they must also have multiplied their stations and extended their roads. Accordingly, the road that traversed the country of the Silures, and retains in its name of Via Julia the name of its constructor, appears clearly from this circumstance to have been laid by Julius Frontinus, the very same legate that conquered the Silures. The conquest of the Siltuntii and Volantii must have occasioned the construction of other roads in Cumberland Westmoreland and Lancashire. And Agricola, like every other legate, must have constructed the roads of those provinces only which he himself had reduced.

As the station of Mancunium and its sister stations in Lancashire and Cheshire were erected in the year 79, the roads which formed the necessary line of communication between them must have been necessarily constructed about the same period. They must certainly have been constructed in the immediately succeeding

ceeding summers of 80, 81, and 82. And to the prosecution of these and the more northerly roads especially does Galgacus in all probability refer, when in the year 84 he speaks so particularly of the ways that were carried on by the Romans¹². Every new conquest indeed of the Romans must have strongly suggested the reflection; but the newest must have suggested it most strongly. And no roads but these could have been constructed, because no conquests had been made, during the ten preceding years.

The roads then that issue from Mancunium and the other stations in Lancashire were all laid while Agricola was making and securing his conquests in the north. And from that particular, as well as from the above-mentioned speech of Galgacus, it obviously appears, that the roads were not carried on, as is frequently imagined, and as the beautiful roads in French Flanders and our own later roads in Scotland were, by large detachments of the soldiery. The Romans were merely the directors; and the more laborious employ was imposed upon the natives. The Romans, says Galgacus, are perpetually exhausting the health of the Britons in the painful employment of clearing the woods and of paving the seas of the island¹³. The whole line of the road must have been previously designed and the course of it prescribed upon paper, after an accurate survey of the country. And the officers of the neighbouring garrisons must have inspected the execution by turns.

¹² See Itin. Cur. p. 72.—¹³ Iter 1, Ab eadem civitate (Rhutupi) ducta est via Guethelinga dicta usque in Segontium—sic; and so exactly Iter 11, Ab Aquis—per viam Julianam Menapiam usque sic: And Bede's Hist. lib. i. c. 7. Verulamium quæ Verlamæastris sive Værlinga-cæstris appellatur — Itin. Cur. p. 108.—
¹⁴ Ikening-street is also written Ikenild, as in the laws of the Confessor or Conqueror. That termination is either Iken eld, Old Iken street, or rather the same as Ikenin and equally the plural termination of Iken.—¹⁵ See Richard Iter 11. — Itin.

Curios. p. 113 and 179.—⁷ See b. I. ch. xi. f. 2.—⁸ See b. I. ch. xi. f. 2.—⁹ Cæsar p. 89 and 73.—¹⁰ The Ricning or Ricnild street, or (as it is more generally written) the Icening or Icenild street, of Derbyshire must also be derived from the same original. If rightly denominated Icening, it must have been so denominated simply as terminating among the Coritanni, and as laid to their country after they were conquered by and received the appellation of Iceni (see b. I. ch. v. f. 4). If rightly called Ricning, as Dr. Stukeley affirms (Itin. Curios. p. 50), and as common accuracy requires it to be, it must have been so called in all probability as leading to the R-Iceni, the Iceni before, the further or northern Iceni. Thus Caer-nar-von is so called as being opposite to Von, Mon, or Anglesey. And thus see Rerigonium and other names in b. I. c. v. f. 11. This road extends from the mouth of the Severn into Derbyshire (Itin. Cur. p. 51, 58, 64, and 65), had the British towns Eborac, Eboracæ, Glev, and others, upon it, and was originally constructed (I suppose) by the Belgic conquerors of the Hædri, a people which possessed (as I have shewed before) all the south of Gloucestershire and all the north of Somersetshire.—¹¹ Iter 11 of Richard, and Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. xviii. So Appian way from Appius Claudius.—¹² Tacitus c. lxxxi. Agric. Vit. —¹³ Tacitus c. xxxi. Corpora ipsa ac manus sylvis ac paludibus ethniciendis—conferunt. v

IV.

THE county of Lancaster is intersected from end to end by four great roads of the Romans. Two run from east to west. And two range from north to south. One of the latter, the knowledge of which we owe entirely to Richard's Itinerary, enters the county on the north-west, and traverses a good part of it, even till it meets with a road which is given to us by Antonine and which enters the county on the north-east. From the point of coincidence both roads proceed in the same route, which is given us by both Itineraries, and prosecuted to and beyond

beyond Mancunium. The account of the north-western is a part of the 10th Iter of Richard, and in it the road runs from Luguvallium or Carlisle to

Brocavonacis. 22

Ad ALAUNAM m. p.

Coccio m. p.

MANCUNIO 18'.

The account of the north-eastern is a part of the 10th Iter of Antoninus, and in it the road goes from Aliene to

Galacum 19

BASMETONACIA 27

Coccio 20

MANCUNIO m. p. 17.

In Richard's Iter the station AD ALAUNAM appears clearly from the mention of Luguvallium and Brocavonacis on one side, and of Coccium and Mancunium on the other, to be somewhere upon or within the northern borders of Lancashire. And this and the name Ad Alaunam carry us at once to the station at Lancaster, the castrum upon ALAUN or the river Lan. The reality of this station has always been confessed. But the name of it has been sometimes supposed to be the Lugandunum of the Chorography, and more generally but more wildly the Lengo-vicus of the Notitia. It was certainly fixed upon the plane of the present Castle-Hill, as the rocky eminence of the hill and the immediate vicinity of the river clearly evince of themselves, and as the still-hanging remains of the Roman wall upon the steepest part of it concur to demonstrate.

In Antonine's Iter Brimstonacis is certainly, as the antiquarians have previously supposed it to be, the station of Overborough. The only objection that could have been made to the supposition, the want of a known road from the north to Overborough, is now precluded, as the road is discovered. And two other roads appear visibly to go away from the station, the one towards Brough near Alcrig in Yorkshire, and the other to Eboracæ. The latter has been hitherto imagined as the road upon which this Iter of Antonine proceeds through Caccum

to

to Manchester; as another which certainly goes from Lancaster to Ribchester may be imagined to be the road upon which this Iter of Richard proceeds. Both particulars may be supposed. But both must be equally supposed in opposition to decisive evidence. That *Perigonium* is Ribchester, the consent of Ptolemy Richard and Remains will fully demonstrate hereafter. That *Coccium* therefore cannot be Ribchester, is abundantly plain, the one being expressly distinguished from the other. And *Coccium* being thus dislodged from the site which it has so long maintained, we must endeavour to give it its proper site, by finding a new station for the old name, as we have already found a new name for the old station.

From the preceding account it is obvious, that this Iter of Richard from *Luguvallium* to *Brocavonacis* and *Ad Alaunam* proceeds along the course of the present road from Carlisle to Lancaster. Along the course of the same road I apprehend it to proceed from Lancaster to *Coccium*. It must necessarily in general point towards Manchester, because to Manchester it certainly goes, and it as certainly does not go to it by the round of Ribchester. It must therefore necessarily stretch away directly to the south-east, and consequently in the line of the present road from Lancaster to Manchester. But this is not our only direction. We have a still more particular one. The distance betwixt *Overborough* and *Coccium* in Antoninus is confessedly erroneous; and the distance betwixt Lancaster and *Coccium* in Richard is either equally erroneous or absolutely lost. But the distance betwixt *Coccium* and *Mancunium* appears in both, and is seventeen miles in Antonine and eighteen in Richard; a difference that in Itineraries like these, where the fractions of miles are never enumerated as such, is really no difference at all. The fraction omitted by Antonine is computed by Richard, and is therefore reckoned for a whole mile. And this agreement of the two Itineraries decisively ascertains the distance of *Coccium* from Manchester. Such an agreement must always be allowed as a decisive argument. Such an agreement must always be supposed

to arise from the existence of the same numbers in the originals of both.

Following then the course of the present road from Lancaster to Manchester till we come within seventeen or eighteen Roman miles of the latter, we should expect to find the site of a Roman castrum. And lo! just at the requisite distance we find one, one hitherto unknown to fame, but pointed out to be one by the most determinate of all stationary characters, the existence of two roads from it to two well-known castra. Such is the village of Blackrode! It is indeed about the distance of thirty-five measured miles from Lancaster and of forty-five from Overborough. But this is a stage which the decisively ascertained distance from Coccium to Manchester necessarily leads us to make. It is actually less than another in this Itinerary of Richard, that betwixt Brocavonacis and Ad Alaunam being no less than forty-eight measured miles. And it must necessarily be very long, when only the station of Coccium appears betwixt Overborough and Manchester, though the one is nearly sixty measured miles distant from the other by the nearest route, and though that distance is lengthened, as here it certainly is, by the diversion of the road from the nearest route through Berigonium to the rounding one through Coccium.

Tradition universally declares the village of Blackrode to have been originally a considerable town. And the construction of a Roman road from Manchester; and the coincidence of another from Ribchester with it, demonstrates the town to have been originally Roman. A Roman road, which shall be described hereafter, comes directly from the Mancunian station by Stany-street and Street-Vale near Walkden-moor to the precincts of the present village. And in those precincts another road meets it, courting through the neighbouring street in the township of Charnock, and pointing to Ribchester one way and to Blackrode the other.

It is justly observed by the right reverend and very learned enlarger of Camden's Britannia, that wherever we find the appellation

pellation of Street we have good reason to expect a road of the Romans. And with equal justice he might have observed, that wherever we meet with such a name we may be absolutely certain of such a road. We may be absolutely certain, that such a road has formerly proceeded or still continues to proceed along the place. Wherever the track of a Roman road has persisted invariably in the course of a modern highway, the name of Street along the line of the latter is the only proof that we can have concerning the existence of the former. The name of *Stræt* *Strat* or *Street*, and the kindred appellation of *Eaſt-ſtreet* *Caster* or *Cheſter*, are two words derived from the Romans to the Britons, and communicated by the Britons to the Saxons. In the original application of the words by the Romans, they could absolutely signify nothing but the Roman roads and the Roman camps. And in the poſterior application of them by the Britons and the Saxons, they muſt have been merely continued to the ſame camps and have been merely retained by the ſame roads. As the Britons muſt have originally adopted theſe names from the Romans before the departure of the latter from the iſland, ſo were there then undoubtedly no public highways or roads and no ſtationary camps or caſtles within the iſland, but ſuch as had been formed by the Romans. And as the Saxons muſt have derived theſe names from the Britons after the ſubjection of the latter in war, and muſt therefore have found them already affixed to the camps and the roads of the Romans, ſo they appear equally with the Britons to have uſed the name of *Cheſter* for the characteristic denomination of a Roman camp, and the name of *Street* for the characteristic appellation of a Roman road.

Thus plainly is *Blackrode* evinced to have been formerly a ſtationary town. And the particular ſite of the ſtation I ſhall point out hereafter. Hereafter it will naturally ſucceed in its turn to be deſcanted upon, as I trace the ſeveral roads that commence from *Mancunium* and extend to the neighbouring ſtations. Theſe roads are many in number, proceeding in various directions, and iſſuing as it were in radii from center to circumference.

And

And these I shall now begin to investigate, pursuing them as they once stretched in conspicuous ridges along the surface of our adjacent heaths, and once opened in ample vistas across the thickets of our surrounding woods, and now seeing them either present only some faint half-formed resemblance of a road, or still forgotten and unknown in a fair elevation over the fruitful levels of our numerous inclosures.

* The original has no number of miles annexed to Coccium. But Dr. Stukeley's copy has, and by some strange blunder has sixty-six p. 33. — * Camden p. 617, and Leigh's Hist. b. iii. p. 10. — * Mr. Rothmell's Overborough, and Mr. Percival's Essay in Phil. Transf. vol. XLVII. p. 227. The road from Overborough to Ribchester had been positively mentioned before by the knowing Camden (p. 614); but later criticks had discredited the existence of it by their doubts (see Horsey). — * B. I. ch. v. sect. 1. — * And the sixty-six miles which Dr. Stukeley gives us were intended by him, I suppose, for thirty-six. The road from Overborough to Blackrode (I suppose) passed through Wierisdale Forest to Broughton, where was a small intermediate castrum (I apprehend), and where it fell into the great road from Lancaster to Blackrode. This, allowing for the considerable inequalities of the road over the hills of the forest, would measure (I believe) about forty Roman miles. And perhaps the number was thus expressed in Antoninus *It.*, and, the upper pair of tens being casually omitted by a transcriber, the number became as it now appears twenty. — * C. 636. — * Bede's Eccl. Hist. lib. i. c. 11. The Roman residence in the island (he says) Civitates, Firus Pontes et Stratae ibidem factae usque hodie testantur. Sax. Chron. p. 22, speaking of Ceaulin's taking three Roman or stationary towns, says that he took *three Chesters*, Gloucester, Cirencester, and Bathchester. And Bede Hist. lib. iii. c. 19, in *Castro quodam* quod—Urbs Cenobheri vocatur, meaning the Gariannonum of the Notitia or the present Brugh near Yarmouth in Norfolk. And we have Stratæur and

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and Stratfleur Abbey, the hundred and the monastery of Ystrad Margell or Strata Marcelli, among the Britons of Wales (Leland's Itin. vol. VII. p. 47 and 16. and vol. VI. p. 105), and Temecestre and Brumcheſter among the Britons of Wales and Caledonia, Temeceſtre being in Montgomeryſhire, and Brumcheſter in Athol (Itin. vol. VII. p. 15 and 17). — B. I. ch. iv. ſect. 3.

CHAP.

C H A P. IV.

I.

IT has been questioned by the antiquarians, whether the stations or the roads of the Romans were prior in time. And no determination has hitherto been given to the question. But the decision is very obvious. The stations, as I have previously intimated, were certainly prior, and the roads were the channels of communication between them. Many of the stations must have necessarily commenced, as I have mentioned before, during the very conquest of the country, and all of them at the conclusion of it. And the roads could not have been constructed till the first or second summer after both.

The road from Cambodunum to Mancunium and from Mancunium to Condate is delineated to us by both Richard and Antonine, and one part of it twice by both. The whole of it is given in the sixth Iter of Richard and the second of Antonine, and the part is repeated by both in their 10th Itinera. And the road to Coccium is equally delineated to us by both Itineries. But the four other roads which connected this and four others of the neighbouring stations are given to us in neither.

The road from Cambodunum to Mancunium and Condate stands thus in both :

Richard's sixth Iter,	Antonine's second Iter,
Ab Eburaco Devam usque sic :	From Eburacum to
Calcaria m. p. 9	Calcaria 9
CAMBODUNO 12	CAMBODUNO 20
MANCUNIO 18	MANUCIO 18
FINIBUS MAXIMÆ et	CONDATE 18
FLAVIÆ m. p. 18	Deva 20.
CONDATE 18	
Deva 18	

And

And the road from Coccium to Mancunium and from Mancunium to Condate is thus given us

In Richard's 10th Iter,

And thus in Antonine's,

From COCCIUM

From COCCIUM

MANCUNIO 18

MANCUNIO m. p. 17

CONDATE 23

CONDATE 18

Mediolano 18;

Mediolano 18.

We are concerned only with such of these stations as are the first stages from Mancunium. And let us begin with Cambodunum and the road to it.

The road to that station must have commenced from the eastern gate of the Castrum, and would naturally have flanted along the left-hand side of the Castle-field and the right-hand of the adjoining gardens. But the position of the gate and the intervention of the ditch must have prevented the route. And the road appears to have proceeded in a very gentle slant upon the left to the extremity of the Castle-field, and in one common stem along it for the roads to two other stations. At the extremity of the Field must all the roads have commenced, and have taken the proper lines of their several destinations. At this extremity the road was cut down from the surface to the base in the year 1765, and the materials of it lay plainly distinguished from the natural gravel of the ground by the melted bricks and the broken mill-stones which were found incorporated with them. It appeared to be constructed with a strong gravel mingled with large boulders and rocky fragments. And the whole road was about fourteen yards in breadth and a yard and an half in depth.

Leaving this common stem, which was the grand avenue into the camp, and was therefore constructed with an unusual breadth, the road must have begun its course to York, have crossed the present highway, have entered the opposite garden, and have slanted to the right of the present windmill. Leaving the garden, and passing by the wind-mill on the left, it must have pointed through the left-hand corner of the dye-house beyond both, must have crossed the Infirmary-lane, and must have left an hay-stand very closely and the two new houses

more distantly on the left. Then crossing the lane to Ardwick, and pointing directly through Stanley-barn on the other side, it must have swept along the middle of the two next fields, have slanted along the left-hand side of the third, and have obliquely descended the little slope of the fourth into Ancoats-lane. And in all this course, so contiguous to the growing town, the trace of it is wholly obliterated by the deep bed of artificial soil with which all the fields are enriched.

Crossing the Ancoats-lane obliquely betwixt a large house and the resting-stone, it is discovered in the first field beyond it by a ridge of sixteen or seventeen yards in width, three quarters of a yard high in gravel and one quarter in marl laid upon it, and sloping towards Shooters-brook. Upon the right and in the field but one immediately beyond the Brook, it is evidenced by a ridge which is about half a yard in height and four or five in width; and the gravel, when the ground is ploughed, appears powdering the sides of the furrows. In the fourth field the ridge rises to a greater height and expands to a greater breadth, and in the fifth returns to its former height of half a yard and its former width of five or six. And in the fifth and sixth closes the gravel is very copious, as the ridge of it is pretty plain in the seventh and still plainer in the eighth.

The road then relinquishes the fields for a while, enters the right line of Butler's-lane, and passes along it beyond the sign of the Fire-engine, the left-hand bank of the lane being near its commencement composed of the gravel of the road. At the corner of the second field on the right beyond the sign, the road once more enters the fields, and appears for the whole length of the third or Brickhill-field half a yard in height and five or six yards in breadth, the left-hand bank of the field being formed with the plunder of the road.

Crossing the lane beyond it in a considerable ridge, it appears in the first field with an evident elevation, extending eight or nine yards in width, and fringed with a broken line of rushes on either side. The ridge is visible along a part of the second inclosure and very plain along the whole of the third. Interrupted

rupted by a lane, the road steals along the fourth field just traceable from the loosened gravel and just visible from the lowered ridge. But in the boggy extent of the fifth the gravel becomes copious and the ridge very plain. And in the sixth it presents a width of six or seven yards to the eye. In the seventh just perceivable by its slight ridge, it disappears in the eighth, but is discovered by the gravel in the ninth and along the sloping side of the right-hand rill. And in the tenth the ridge of the road is once more conspicuous, and the body of the gravel is even with the horizon.

The road then crosses the lane which leads to the Medlock and Bradford with a fair elevation, but immediately loses it, and is only discovered by the spade in the first field and along the left-hand edge of it. Thus passing another field and a croft, it is cut through by one of the washing-pits at Richard Rothwell's house, and now furnishes a strong hard bottom of gravel to the stagnant water. Crossing the pit and passing through the fold beyond it, the road enters the broad line of the neighbouring lane, and reaches the miry expanse of Newton-heath. Mounting the gentle ascent of the heath, it points directly upon the chapel above. But obliterated for the first hundred yards, it becomes very plain for the next hundred and fifty, the gravelled ridge rising more than half a yard in height and spreading eight or ten yards in breadth, and the brown-green colour of the beaten track in winter being strongly contrasted by the light hue of the withering rushes along it. For a few yards immediately on this side of the chapel the course of the road is effaced, but appears to have gone directly into it, and through the whole length of the southern side, and was there discovered upon the recent erection of the present structure. On the other side of the chapel the elevation appears again, but less conspicuous and of a shorter extent, the ridge being only about a quarter of a yard in height and seven or eight yards in breadth, and continuing only about one hundred yards in length. Here the line of the road points visibly through the right-hand extremity of the house which stands upon the eastern margin

of the heath. And the gravel of it is easily found in the ground-made flooring of the loom-house within it.

Entering the fields that lie betwixt the heath and Back-lane, and traversing them obliquely a little to the right of the foot-road, the Roman way is discovered by the spade at the farther end of the first field, appears with a ridge in the third, and reappears with another in the eighth. In the third the ridge rises about half a yard in height, and continues across the whole breadth of the field; but in the eighth the ridge is small and the gravel low. And from this point, running nearly parallel with the course of the Back-lane and within the distance of a few yards from it, the Roman road must have proceeded through the houses at the extremity of Lort-lane and through the barn and houses of Wagstaffe-fold. And it was accordingly discovered a few years ago upon the construction of the barn. Soon afterwards, crossing the curving line of the Back-lane, it falls directly into another, and extends along it to Hollinwood. This is a lane which is continued about a mile and an half in length, which courses all the way in a direct line, and which is all the way denominated Street. And about eighty yards from the entrance are some remains of the road which are remarkably perfect, and which carry the grandest appearance of any Roman remains that I have seen in the island.

In this lane the range of a moss intersected the course of the road. A house on the right is still denominated the Moss-Yate; the fields on either side still strongly retain their mossy quality; and the rotten stocks and the branchy bodies of trees are still frequently discovered by the plough. And this morassy tract appears to have extended a whole mile in length across the line of the Roman road, some part of it being tolerably firm and dry, but others being particularly dangerous and deep.

About fifty yards within the entrance into Street-lane, the Roman road reaches the margin of the moss, and immediately presents a considerable ridge to the eye, having instantly an elevation of a yard and an half above the contiguous ground on the left. In sixty yards more, the ground sloping sharply away on the
right,

right, the elevation is three or four yards above it, as in sixty more the elevation is nearly five, and in seventy more it is actually six. Thus gradually gaining a more elevated crest and a more magnificent aspect, the road is carried for no less than four hundred yards across this hollow of the moss. The ridge of the gravel rises gently for the first two hundred yards, and falls as gently for the next. And the summit of the crest is nearly level in the fall with the roof of an adjoining cottage.

This extraordinary grandeur of the road in the fall is not, as might naturally be imagined, at first, the mere result of Roman contrivance and British industry. It has been partly occasioned by the accidental subsidence of the ground upon either side of the road, the thick coat of the turfy surface having been greatly cut away, and the ground being somewhat reduced to the deep level of its vegetable mold. And it has been equally occasioned by the process of the Romans in constructing the road. From a large incision which I made into the bed of the turf beneath the Roman gravel, they appeared plainly to have originally trenched the line of the moss that was destined to receive the road very deeply upon either side. And the larger and more solid plates of turf, which rose with the shovel from the lower part of the trench, they appeared to have laid upon the original face of the moss, and to have raised the level of the line with them more than a yard in height. Upon sinking a pit along the side of the gravel and for a yard and an half into the black soil, no ling or heath was found upon the surface of the soil and immediately below the gravel. It was first found about a yard below the surface. And it was then found in considerable quantities. The whole work was carried gradually sloping upwards from the broad basis of twelve or fourteen yards on the surface of the moss, till at the height of nine or ten it terminated in a narrow crest of three or four above, and ran level with the firmer ground upon either extremity of it. And the Roman gravel appears heaped upon the black line of the original soil, and raised in general near a yard and an half above it.

The road having extended about forty yds beyond the cottage and having passed the boggiest region of the moss, the turf of which even beneath the weight of the Roman gravel is still very soft and spongy, the level of the ground on both sides begins to arise, and the height of the ridge is immediately lowered. But the track continues to be very evident, the gravel even lying half a yard in depth upon the firm black moss, and the crest rising about a whole yard in height above the adjacent fields. Thus proceeding, the road sometimes extends into the fields on the left, and the basis of the left-hand hedge is almost continually formed with the gravel of it. And in the third field beyond the cottage, where the cart sometimes plunges to the axle-tree and the horses sink to the belly in the boggy soil, the border of the road is well known to the farmer by the great difficulty of harrowing the ground and by the great scantiness of the corn upon it.

Thus does the Roman road continue along the lane, the course of it being still denominated Street, and the gravel of it being more or less visible all the way. But the road approaching the common of Hollinwood, and the lane turning away on the right and left, the former deserts the latter and re-enters the fields, sweeping across Wulfenden's meadow, where it is frequently found, ascending the little elevation of Barnfield, where it is just visible, and appearing in a plain green ridge along the rushy level of Moss-grave. And courting through Mr. Kerthaw's Kitchen-croft and Fold and over Mr. Bent's Gatefield, it proceeds to Glodwick, the village of Osterlands, and the valley of Saddleworth. It crosses the road of Huthersfield and the fields of Castlethaw. It passes in one long green seam over the boggy extent of Clouzemoor. It passes visibly over the summit of the Reaps. And it points directly upon Polemoor-stone, the northern side of Gowkerhill, and the genuine site of Cambodunum.

The site of this station has never been hitherto discovered. Fixed originally at Almondbury, it has since been removed to or near to Gretland-moor. But the same good reason which occasioned

sioned it to be removed from the former site, that lying too much to the south of the visible Roman road, has equally occasioned it to be removed from the latter, that lying equally too much to the north of the road. Thus uncertain does the site of Cambodunum remain. And though the moors have been searched with uncommon diligence by a couple of antiquarians, and though the track of the road is occasionally very visible over them, nor a station or the vestiges of a station have been hitherto discovered, except a large one at Kirkclee, about a mile to the south of the road's direction and about twenty-eight measured miles from Manchester, and a small one at Castleshaw, directly upon the track, but only about twelve from Manchester. Neither of these can stand for Cambodunum. The one is certainly too small; the other is too remote from the road, and neither about the specified distance of Cambodunum from Mancunium.

From the concurrent authority of Richard and of Antonine Cambodunum appears to be eighteen miles from Mancunium. And, as to Calcaria on the other side, we may fix the former at any distance from that station, because of the difference in the numerals of the two Itineraries, Richard's placing Cambodunum at twenty-two miles from Calcaria, and Antonine's at twenty. But these eighteen Roman miles, by the necessary deduction of one fourteenth for the difference betwixt the Roman and the English measure, will be contracted to sixteen and three quarters English; and by the as necessary addition of one fourth for the difference betwixt the road and the horizontal mile across this broad and lofty chain of mountains, will be augmented into twenty-two.

About the twenty-second mile therefore from Castle-field along the track of the Roman road must be the site of the Roman Cambodunum. And just about that distance from it and from Manchester I find it. The ground upon which I settle this long-lost town is vulgarly denominated Slack, and lies in the township of Longwood and within the parish of Huthersfield. Here are four closes which are called the Eald or old fields and crofts, and adjoin to the track of the Roman road from Mancunium.

cunium. These contain an area of twelve or fourteen acres, and are watered with a couple of brooks, that meet just at the town and curve round three sides of it. And along the extended area of these fields have foundations of buildings been discovered, some of them being a yard in thickness, and all of them composed of strong stone and cement. Two of the fields have been lately cleared of these crowded foundations, but the other two still remain entirely filled up with them, and the farmers have frequently broken their ploughs in all. And several troughs have been discovered, pieces of thick glass, urns, bones, and slips of copper.

Thus plainly have these Eald fields been the site of some considerable town. And that the town was Roman is absolutely certain. The position of it amid the wild expanse of these dreary moors and upon the course of the Roman road over them, and its exact distance from Mancunium, do of themselves evince it to be Roman. And a great quantity of bricks has been discovered in the foundations, some of which were long and some square, and all of a very beautiful red. The latter bricks were frequently twenty-two inches in the square, and were found in the floorings of some of the houses; as in others was found a thick crust of brick rudely scored into squares in imitation of the tessellated work, and in others was taken up a pavement composed of pounded bricks and very white mortar. Near the eastern side of the area, where three stone-hedges and three lordships now meet, and whence a long line of houses appears from the discovered foundations to have extended towards the north and in the line of the hedges, were lately found three coins of brass, two of which were soon lost by the carelessness of Ignorance, and the third has CAES. AVG. P. M. TR. on one side, an S and a C in the middle, and PVBLICA round the margin of the other. And two Roman inscriptions have been found, which are exhibited in the plate, the larger of which, walled up in a building, was copied for me by the reverend Mr. Watson, and the smaller is in my own possession.

But near the place where the coins were discovered was very lately a mount one yard in height and about thirty in circumference. In the rubbish of this mount, and about three yards below the surface of the ground, was dug up the foundation of a building which was constructed of stone and had a flooring of bricks. Upon the eastern side of this building, and beneath the level of this flooring, was a small chamber four yards in length and two and a half in breadth. It was supported by pilasters rising half a yard in height and formed of square bricks. And it was paved with mortar and bricks pounded to a great hardness and laid to the thickness of a yard. This was clearly a Roman Hypocaust, and such a flooring was clearly designed to bear the requisite force of the fire; as the space between the pilasters was sufficient to admit the body of a boy, and the surface of the floor was covered with a quantity of black ashes. And on the western side of this building, where was pretty certainly a temple, were dug up a Roman altar and its basis. The altar is now in my own possession, and it and its inscription are represented in the plate. And the inscription at full length is this, *Fortunæ Sacrum Caius Antonius Modestus Centurio Legionis Sextæ Victricis Piæ Fidelis Votum solvit lubens merito, Caius Antonius Modestus Centurion of the sixth victorious pious and faithful legion consecrated this altar to Fortune, and with pleasure discharged the vow which he owed.*

Thus plainly are the remains evinced to be Roman. And thus clearly have we found what Industry has vainly toiled and Genius has ineffectually schemed to discover through the long extent of a century and an half, the real site of *Cambodunum*. The town was constructed along these four closes, and the station must have been placed upon the neighbouring fields and immediately beyond the channel of the western streamlet. There is a proper site for a camp, a *lingula* formed by the union of the two above-mentioned brooks, and defended by their deep channels upon two sides.

So situated were the town and the station of *Cambodunum*, and four Roman roads commence at both, and go away to

Manchester to York and to two other stations. The Roman road from Manchester, crossing the level of the second and inferior range of the Yorkshire hills, becomes the boundary to the parishes of Halifax and Huddersfield, has Stainland-moor on the left and Longwood on the right, and, passing within two hundred yards from the station and the town, throws off a way to them on the right. And the Roman road from York, coursing fourteen yards in breadth over Lindley-moor, descending along the left side of Lee-hill, and passing along the course of the Out-lane, throws off another way to the town and station. But both these branches are also parts of two other roads which extended from this to two other stationary towns. The one stretches visibly over Stainland-moor, appearing as a green list across the exposed heath, passes over Forest-hill to Stainland-Dene, and in some inclosures at the bottom has been discovered by the plough; courses the valley near the present bridge into the township of Bartsland, being in this and in the township of Stainland denominated Saville-Yate; goes by Mossleyden-Yate and across the township of Rishworth to the old road over Blackstone Edge, and to that part of it which is called the Devil's Causeway, being denominated the Danes-road by the shepherds of Rishworth; then goes to the Roman road from Manchester to Ilkley, and, as is asserted by the shepherds, proceeds across it into Lancashire *. The other goes away from Cambodanum N. E. by Na, has been discovered in an adjoining field six or seven yards in breadth, crosses the Roman road from York to Manchester in a considerable angle, passes along a green broad lane and is therefore denominated Green-Gate, and, going along the foot of Lee-hill, points directly, I think, to the Roman town of Adel Mill near Leeds *.

The name of this station in the Itineraries of Richard and Antonine is written Cambodanum; but in the Geography of Ptolemy Camulodanum, and in the Chorography of Ravennas more rightly Camulodanum; being fully distinguished in both from the station which partook of the same name, the Camulodanum of the former and the Camulodunum Colonia of the latter.

ter. External testimony therefore, the only testimony that we can have in the present case, favours the one name as much as it countenances the other. Both must have been equally the names of the station: and we shall soon meet with other instances of stations that bear a duplicate of names. Camulodunum is merely the general name of a camp, *Cāmulus* being one of the British names for Mars, and *Dunum* signifying a town ". And *Cambo-dunum* signifies more specifically the fortress upon the stream. The one name is descriptive of its particular position: And the other is declarative of its military application.

The pass over the mountains which goes along the site of *Camulodunum* is much less intersected with hills vallies and rivers, than any other which could be found for very many miles upon either side of it ". This therefore, in the time of the Britons, must have been the customary passage from the south of Lancashire into the south of Yorkshire. And this pass the Brigantes of the latter and the *Sistuntii* of the former would both of them, for their own security, endeavour to guard by the erection of fortresses upon it. Nor was this the only pass that seems to have been guarded by fortresses. *Bremetonac* in the north, a fortress about Colne in the center, and a second perhaps about Littleborough or Windy-Bank, and another at *Castle-haw* in the south, seem to have formed a regular chain of forts for that purpose upon the *Sistuntian* side of this natural barrier. And these seem to have been regularly answered by another chain of fortresses upon the *Brigantian*, *Camulodune* being opposed to *Castle-haw* and *Olicana*, answering to *Colne*. That *Castle-haw* in particular was once a fortress of the primeval Britons, is pretty plainly evinced by the few remains which have been accidentally discovered at it. Within the area of the castle, extended as it evidently appears to have been from the present eminence of the ground and the appellation of the *Husteads* and *Castle-hills*, and containing several statute-acres in its compass, have been dug up those round beads of the Britons that have been equally discovered in the British barrows upon *Salisbury Plain* ". They were of earth or paste perforated, ribbed or fluted on the

outside, and coloured over with a green-blue dye. And within one or two fields from the castle was lately discovered a brazen Celt, hollow in the blade, and carrying a loop at the head ". The region of Saddleworth indeed, of which the site of Castle-shaw is a part, now belongs to the county of York. But it must evidently have been originally dismembered from Lancashire, being even now a chapelry in one of our Lancashire parishes, and the greater of this double range of hills most naturally forming the barrier betwixt the Siltuntii and the Brigantes ".

The Britons finding a site at Cambodunum that was very well calculated for a fortress, being screened from the violences of the weather by the high grounds around it, and yet no ways liable to be insulted from them, being well provided with water, and very capable of defence, they placed their fortress upon it. It must then have been encompassed on every side by the forest which covered this particular region of the moors to these later ages, and which has given the denomination of Forest-hill to a neighbouring height. And here the Romans for the same reason afterwards planted a stationary town. This appears from its remains to have been considerable. This appears from Richard to have even obtained the honourable privilege of the Jus Latium ". And this must have given the chearful aspect of cultivation to these now sable wastes, and must have made the busy hum of men to resound amid these now dreary solitudes. But it was destroyed very early in the period of the Saxons. The voice of Tradition, which speaks so loudly at the sites of some Roman towns, is either absolutely silent or very faintly whispers at this, though scarcely a single relique perhaps appears at the former, and though the remains are equally numerous and remarkable at the latter. And the town was certainly, as Cambodunum has been generally supposed to have been, the famous Campodonum of Bede, and was levelled to the ground during the wasteful invasion of Cadwallaun and Penda in 633 and within a few years only after its first submission to the Saxons. With the Romans began the glory of this hilly region. And nearly with the Brigantes it was absolutely terminated for ever ".

Horsley

Horfeley p. 387, and others.—Mr. Percival's Essay in Phil. Transf. V. XLVII. p. 219, &c.—Horfeley p. 414.—Mr. Percival's Essay.—Mr. Angier of Heton (Horfeley p. 413.) and Mr. Percival of Ryton.—Ogilby's Roads p. 41. 1698. and Horfeley p. 412.—The name is vulgarly pronounced the Yeld Fields, as the neighbouring Ealand is popularly denominated Yelland, and as some Eald houses at Rushulme near Manchester are popularly called the Yeld houses.—The account of this road I received from the rev. Mr. Watfon, who lately refided at Ripponden in the neighbourhood.—See Phil. Transf. V. XXIII. p. 1285.—Camden p. 322. Cæfar p. 164. and Gruter p. 56.—And see also Montfaucon's Antiq. Expl. tom. I. p. 46. plate 17. Mr. Pegge on Cunobeline's coins p. 15. fupposes Mars to have had different denominations among different tribes, Camulus among the Caffii or Trinovantes, Belatucadrus among the Brigantes, and Braciaca among the Coritani. But this is evidently a miftake. Mars appears from the other name of Cambodunum to have been called Camulus among the Brigantes as well as among the Trinovantes or Caffii. And all the names without doubt were common to all parts of the ifland.—Phil. Transf. V. XLVII. p. 225.—Stukeley's Stonehenge p. 45.—See ch. i. f. 2. B. 1.—See ch. v. f. 1. b. I.—See b. I. ch. 8. f. 1. of this work.—See the Campodonum in Bede l. ii. c. 14: and the B and the P are frequently interchanged, as I fhall fhew hereafter. *Bafilicam cum totâ eadem villâ succenderunt.* It was levelled to the ground juft thirteen years after its fubmiffion to the Saxons. See b. ii. ch. 2. f. 5.

The antiquarian world has long called upon the incorporated antiquarians of London to publish the many ufeful difsertations that were known to be lodged in their archives. The work is at laft begun. And the public has been this winter obliged with the firft volume of the Antiquarian Tranfactions. This is a valuable prefent in itfelf. This is more valuable for its future confequences. It now forms a regular and refpectable repository for the effufions of the antiquarian genius. It will pecu-
liarly

liarly stimulate the ingenious and the sensible both in and out of the society to remit their disquisitions to it. And we may therefore very safely affirm, that each succeeding volume will rise superior in spirit sentiment and usefulness to the first. In this, my learned and worthy friend the rev. Mr. Watson, now rector of Stockport in Cheshire, and the late Thomas Percival Esq; of Ryton near Manchester, have advanced several particulars relating to the subject of the present section, which have been too hastily taken up and are generally unjust. Thus Mr. Percival in p. 63. and Mr. Watson in p. 218—220, on suppositions frivolous in themselves and confessedly contrary to authority, fix the boundaries of Maxima and Flavia, not (as they actually ran) along the Humber the Don and the Mersey, but along the Humber the hills of Castlethaw and the Ribble. Thus p. 216—217 Mr. Watson endeavours, as Mr. Percival had endeavoured before in Phil. Transf. V. XLVII, to fix the Alunna of Ravennas at Castlethaw, principally because it occurs in that ever-desultory Chorography near to Mantium, the supposed Manucium of Antonine; when both Richard and Antonine confessedly go over the road on which Castlethaw stands without the least mention of Alunna; when the very name implies a situation the reverse of Castlethaw, a position upon a river, from which Castlethaw is at some distance; and when the Alunna of Ravennas so obviously points at the Ad Alaunam or Lancaster of Richard. And thus p. 225 Mr. Watson fixes the Campodonum of Bede at Doncaster, because Alfred mistakenly translates it Donasfelda, and because Campodonum was destroyed at the invasion in which Edwin was killed at Heathfield near Doncaster; when the names of the towns in Bede must certainly be sought in the Itineraries of the Romans, and Cambodunum is so obviously reflected in Campodonum; when Doncaster must necessarily have been mentioned by him under the appellation of Dano Daunp or Dono Caestir or of Castrum ad Danum, and is expressly mentioned by the Continuator of Nennius under the similar title of Caer Daun; and when from that mention it plainly appears to have not been destroyed at all in A. D. 633,

II.

To settle the particular position of Condæ hath long embarrassed the antiquarian critics. Settled originally at Congleton because of some remaining sameness in the name, that only guide in the infancy of antiquarian learning, it has been lately fixed upon better principles at or near Northwich. But it was neither at the one nor at the other. The site of the station is sufficiently pointed out by the course of the road. And the course of the road is sufficiently ascertained by the broken remains of it which sometimes appear, by the direction of them where they cease, and by the sure signatures of the name of Street where both fail us.

Richard's 6th Iter runs thus,
From MANCUNIAM
FINIBUS MAXIMÆ
ET FLAVIÆ m. p. 18
CONDATÆ 18
Deva 18;

And Antonine's 2d Iter thus,
From MANUCIAM to
CONDATÆ 18
Deva 20.

Richard's 10th Iter runs thus,
From MANCUNIAM to
CONDATÆ 23
Mediolano 18;

And Antonine's 10th Iter thus,
From MANCUNIAM to
CONDATÆ 18
Mediolano 18.

The road to Condatæ did not take the direct way from the station to Throftle-nest, but made an ample curve on the south to reach it. The right line of the road would have carried it from the south-western angle of the camp across the channel of the Medlock, and in the line of the canal into the road at Cornebrook. But this route of the road was prevented by the steepness of the bank, by the want of a ford there across the channel.

channel of the river, and by the prudence of retaining both in their natural state as the principal barriers of the camp upon the south.

The road to Condate and to Cambodunum commenced at the same time from the eastern gate of the Castrum, and proceeded in the same line along the eastern side of the Castle-field. At the extremity of the Field the road to Condate must have left the road to Cambodunum, have winded along the descent to the river, and a little on this side of Cornebrook have turned on the right to gain the line in which it should originally have moved. Passing from this point along the line of the present road, but twisted into little angles by the unequal encroachments of the inclosures upon it, it must have proceeded through the village of Stretford to the bridge over the Mersey. And as no appearance of the Roman workmanship can at all be expected along the track of the present road, so none are discoverable along the borders of the adjoining fields. Along the unvarying level of those low meadows particularly which extend from the village to the ford, the least elevation of a road would be immediately perceived. Along the coat of river-sand which covers those meadows to a considerable depth, the least seam of gravel would immediately be distinguished. But as no traces of a ridge appear to the eye above, so no vestiges of a foundation are discovered by the spade below.

The road, having passed the meadows and crossed the ford, continues along the course of the present lane to the village of Cross-street, and proceeds through it to the once ample extent of Broad-Heath. There the present road beginning to wind upon the left and to point towards the little town of Altringham, the Roman way deserts it, and, passing about the middle of the present heath, enters the fields that have been lately inclosed from it. And in these fields the line of the gravel is frequently discovered by the spade, lying upon the black turf and the white sand. And at the extremity of these fields was the road discovered in the cutting of the new canal, and the traces of it appear to the eye at present in the gravelled side of the bank.

bank. Beyond the canal it entered the fields of Oldfield-Hall, is invisible in the first, but is very visible in the other three. These appear to have been originally a part of the neighbouring moor, which is denominated Seaman's, which spread into a large extent upon the right, and some narrow remains of which still continue immediately on the left. And the Roman road must have been constructed along them with a good elevation. Within these very few years, the gravel has been carried away to the depth of a yard in many places. And yet the seam of the gravel remains very conspicuous along the third and fourth fields.

But, leaving these closes, the road enters a field that was hedged in from the moor only a few years ago. This must have been the most boggy part of the moor in the time of the Romans, as even now the soil of it is so extremely loose and soft, that I pushed a whalebone whip with great facility a full yard into the ground. Over such a tract of land, the road must necessarily have been raised with gravel to a considerable height. Over it the road still carries a lofty ridge, being popularly called the Upcast, and having a fall for ten or twelve yards on either side. And over it the road lately carried a loftier; a great quantity of gravel having been taken off from the summit soon after the inclosing of the field, and dispersed equably along the sides.

Having thus crossed the moor, the Roman way leaves the low grounds to which it had hitherto been confined, and begins to ascend the Dunes or hills which terminate the rich valley of Manchester to the south-west, and give name to the neighbouring Dunham. Not mounting the summit but passing along a lower shelf of the hills, it enters Dunham-park, and must once have communicated the name of Street-head to the high ground upon its left. And this name is now retained by the only habitation which is near it, a small house at the foot of the high ground and upon the margin of the present road.

Descending along the slope of these heights and leaving the inclosure of the Park, the Roman road must have crossed the

little valley beyond and its little rivulet the Bollen, and have once more fallen into the present road near New-Bridge. This a single significative circumstance sufficiently indicates of itself. The whole length of the present road from New-Bridge to Buckley-Hill is denominated Street. The Roman road therefore stretches away from the angle immediately beyond New-Bridge along the course of the present road, and leaves Rostherne-Mere about a bow-shot from it on the left. Thus does it proceed to Buckley-Hill, being all the way popularly known by the expressive appellation of Street. From Buckley-Hill it passes to Mere-town, proceeding in the same line and retaining the same name. And about two miles beyond the latter, passing the narrow hollow channel of a brook, it assumes the name of Holford-street, and preserves it for half a mile together.

A little beyond the conclusion of this half-mile, the present road beginning to tend too much towards Northwich, the Roman road insensibly steals away to the left. But about a mile beyond the point, and in the direction of the line, we recover the road again. This new part of the road is a well-gravelled lane, denominated Street, and extending in a right line for four or five miles together. The Roman road stealing over the inclosures, or passing along the bye-lanes, must have stretched directly across Penny-lane, and have instantly entered the ample opening of the street. The appellation of this road is written Kind-street by the only antiquarians that have named it, Mr. Horsey and Mr. Percival; but is invariably spoken King-street by the people. The former however is pretty certainly the name, and the latter is merely a corruption. And the alteration has resulted entirely from the natural humour among all nations of assimilating strange to familiar names in popular pronunciation, as the road must have led to the antient Condate, and as it now leads to the present Kindeyton. At its commencement, leaving the town of Northwich about half a mile to the right, the Kind-street goes on about twelve or fourteen yards in breadth, a great public road, and now wanting considerable repair. In its continuance, leaving the sandy waste

of Bud-heath a little distant on the left and Newton near Middlewich less distant on the right, the Kind-street passes through Ravenscroft into Kinderton. And both the name and the lane are instantly heard of no more.

Here therefore the conclusion of the road and the length of the distance invite us strongly to search for a station. The name of Condate is pretty loudly echoed in the name of Kinderton. And, what is much more weighty, this is the first place convenient for a station about the requisite distance from Manchester.

The Kind-street, pointing down the bank of the river to the bridge of Ravenscroft, must have forded the channel two or three yards to the right of the bridge, and have entered the field beyond it. In this field it has been actually discovered. This is denominated the Harbour's field. And this was certainly the area of the Roman station. The particular situation of the field betwixt the rivers Croco and Dane is a sufficient proof in itself. The appellation of the ground is an additional evidence, the Har-bourh's Field signifying plainly the area of the military station. And the site and the name, the remains about it and the tradition concerning it, are an absolute determination.

This field is nearly a parallelogram of ten statute-acres in extent, and is bounded by a natural bank lofty and steep upon one side, and the little Croco curling at the foot of it, and by another natural bank less lofty but more steep on another side, and the larger Daven or Dane gurgling directly beneath it; the former rivulet falling into the latter at the angle of the field. Upon the third side, but several yards within the hedge of the field, are the considerable remains of a ditch, rising up the ascent, and being once undoubtedly continued in the same line and along the hollow of the contiguous lane. And upon the fourth side the antient ditch still preserves its original perfection, being a steep fosse about ten yards in depth to the narrow bottom and about eight in breadth at the top, formerly converted, like a part of the other ditch, into the course of a road, and lately made the channel of an artificial streamlet.

Such was the station of Condate. And a road has been discovered commencing from it, traversing a field immediately without the castrum, and frequently visible in a dry summer for the whole length of the field immediately beyond both. This is ordinarily called the Roman road, and must certainly from its direction have gone to Mediolanum in Shropshire. Another must have coursed by Home-street-Hall to Chester. And a third must have extended by Street-Forge and Red-street to Chesterton near Newcastle.

This then is Condate, the station so long lost and so vainly sought. And that it has been lost and sought so long may justly excite our admiration. The road pointing certainly towards Chester, because to Chester one Iter of Antonine carries it, and pointing as certainly to the south or south-east of Chester, because another Iter of Antonine carries it into Shropshire, the course of it might have been very easily investigated. The sure signatures of Stretford Cross-street Street-head Street Holford-street and King-street, names all occurring in the line, all pointing out either well-known villages conspicuous eminences or public roads, and some retained for several miles together, trace out the course of it in the plainest colours. And the clear tradition of a Roman camp and the similar appellation of Kinderton, at the conclusion of the whole, assuredly shed the fullest light upon the genuine site of Condate.

The distance of this station from Mancunium is fixed by the sixth Iter of Richard at thirty-six miles, but, in the tenth at twenty-three, and by the second and tenth of Antonine at only eighteen. In this diversity of informations, we are fully at liberty to chuse such of the measures as best agree with the real distance, and to reject all of them if none agree. We need not the evidence of the numbers to ascertain the position of the castrum.

In the first measure of Richard, which reckons thirty-six miles from Mancunium to Condate, he makes the remarkable insertion of a station betwixt the one and the other. This he or his transcriber has placed at eighteen miles from both, and at the boundaries

boundaries of the two provinces Flavia and Maxima. But, certain as we are concerning the course of the road, the very mention of these boundaries shows the number of the miles to be greatly erroneous. The limits of the provinces are the banks of the Mersey at Stretford; and these are only four or five Roman miles from the Castle-field. And if Richard's other distance of twenty-three miles to Condate be the right one, as we shall find it to be, five must be the number in this place; five added to the following eighteen in the sixth Iter being equivalent to the twenty-three in the tenth. This was pretty certainly the original number. And the eye of Richard or his transcriber unwarily catching the number eighteen immediately below, his hand inserted the latter instead of the former.

Differing equally from both and from truth are the numbers in Antonine. But the difference may be removed with ease and without any alteration of the present figures. The two Itinera of Antonine give us exactly the same number of miles for the distance betwixt Castle-field and Kinderton, as one Iter of Richard gives us for that betwixt Kinderton and Stretford. And from this coincidence it is highly probable, that the intermediate stage was originally inserted in the tenth Iter of Antonine as well as in the sixth of Richard, and had the number five annexed to it in both; and that the next reckoning of eighteen miles commenced from it in that Iter as well as in this. This was very probably the original state of that Iter. And when this and all the similar notices, which must surely have been once inserted in Antonine's as they now appear in Richard's Itinerary, were thrown out of the former in order to abridge the work, the abridger overlooked the number annexed to this notice, and left the next to stand as it stood before.

The real distance from Castle-field to Kinderton Camp is this. From the Cross at Manchester to the Inn at Buckley-Hill the distance measures about twelve miles, as from Buckley-Hill by Mere-town to Middlewich the distance measures about other twelve. But as we must deduct three quarters of a mile for the distance betwixt the Castle-field and the Cross at Manchester, so
must

must we subtract about a mile for the difference betwixt the direct road of the Romans and the curving road of the present times from Broad-Heath to New-Bridge, and for the angle which the present road describes in going nearer to Northwich and then turning by Penny-lane to King-street. Thus settled, the real distance from the station at Manchester to the camp at Kinderton must be twenty-two English miles, which are very nearly equivalent to twenty-three and three quarters Roman miles, and are therefore fully correspondent with the number in the tenth Iter of Richard.

But here, as we tread the grassy circuit of the Roman Harborough or station, let us reflect a little on the ancient history of this part of the country, which is so near to the confines of Manchester, and with which Condate, the first stage from Manchester to the south-west, is so nearly connected. It is utterly unnoticed by others. It is curious in itself. And it will greatly illustrate the antiquities of both.

The Cornavii of Ptolemy, before the arrival of the Romans, possessed that detached region of Flintshire which adjoins to the village of Banchor, all Cheshire, all Shropshire, all Staffordshire, the greater part of Warwickshire, and the adjoining parts of Leicestershire. They owned the towns of Deva or Chester, Uriconium or Wroxeter, Banchorium or Banchor, and Etocetum or Wall near Litchfield. And their dominions appear to have reached all across the whole extent of Warwickshire to the south-eastern verge of it, as they enjoyed Bensonnæ or Claychester in the neighbouring skirts of Leicestershire, and as, still lower to the south, a part of Warwickshire that lies betwixt Coventry and Southam and along the range of the fosseway is denominated from them the Cornavy to the present period. These with the Britons of Cornwall in the south-western regions, of the island, and with the Britons of Cathnes, in the north-eastern, are all equally denominated Carnabii by Richard. And all of them must have been undoubtedly denominated from some one striking circumstance of position or of origin which was common to them all. They were all evidently denominated from the
common

common nature of their site. The Carnabii of Cornwall and the Carnabii of Cathness obviously inhabited a region exactly similar in this great particular, that, open upon one side, it narrowed gradually upon the other, and shot out in a promontory into the sea. Such a promontory the Britons expressed by the word *Keren-av*, the horn of the sea. And from this the common the significative characteristic of the two countries the two tribes that possessed them must have been undoubtedly denominated. The Carnabii therefore who inhabited the whole of Staffordshire Shropshire and Cheshire, and several parts of Warwickshire Leicestershire and Flintshire, must have equally received their denomination from the nature of their sea-coast. And as all their possessions in the other counties are entirely removed from the sea, this necessarily carries us into Cheshire. There, in the neighbourhood of the Dee, the Carnabii are expressly declared by Richard to have been originally situated ? And there we have a region similar to those of Cornwall and Cathness, a region open on one side, narrowing on the other, and shooting out into the sea. The county is contracted on the west into the peninsula of Wirrall, and pushes out in that long promontory betwixt the æstuaries of the Dee and the Mersey. Thus considered, do the same three names all result from one and the same circumstance. And the uniformity of the etymology is a sufficient proof of its propriety.

Within this peninsula, then, and along the contiguous parts of the county, the Carnabii originally resided. From this peninsula and the contiguous parts of the county the original Carnabii must have sallied out, and spread their dominions over the rest of the county, over the whole counties of Shrewsbury and Stafford, and over the neighbouring parts of Warwickshire Leicestershire and Flintshire. While they were confined within the precincts of West-Cheshire, they seem to have had only the towns of Deva and Condate. And of these Condate appears from its name to have been the capital, being composed of the words *Conda Te*, and signifying the principal abode.

Thus

Thus was Condate the capital of West-Cheshire, and, after the acquisition of the rest of the county, Shropshire, Staffordshire, and the neighbouring parts of Warwickshire Leicestershire and Flintshire, the capital of all. But as it had certainly lost its dignity before the arrival of the Romans, so did it as certainly lose it in consequence of an invasion from the Brigantes. When that active and spirited tribe, about the commencement of the Christian æra, had seized all the fortresses that guarded the passes of the Yorkshire hills, and had subdued all the country that lay betwixt the hills and the sea, they appear to have carried their victorious arms to the south and north, to have crossed the river of Mersey and the frith of Solway, and to have conquered equally the Selgovæ of Anandale and the Carnabii of Cheshire. The conquest of the Selgovæ is clearly evinced by the statue which was discovered in their country and which was inscribed to the Goddess Brigantia ¹⁰. And the conquest of the Carnabii may be equally evinced from an altar which was discovered at Chester and was inscribed to the Goddess-Nymph of the Brigantes ¹¹. The Carnabii of Cheshire therefore and the Selgovæ of Anandale had certainly adopted themselves, and had actually communicated to the Romans, the worship of the peculiar or tutelar divinity of the Brigantes; and both therefore at the invasion of the Romans must have been reduced under the dominion of the Brigantes. Nothing can be a fuller proof of the subjection of one British tribe to another, than its desertion of its own tutelar divinity and its adoption of the other's.

This reasoning is fully confirmed by the authority of Ptolemy. He mentions not the Cornavii as the possessors of Cheshire. He gives them Chester indeed; but for that purpose has removed it far away from the county, and has even placed it forty-five miles to the south of Wroxeter and an hundred and five to the east of it. And from a comparison of the latitude and longitude of Seteia or the Dee with those of Devana or Chester, as they are all given by himself, it appears plainly that he did not apprehend the latter to be within or even near to Cheshire, having placed Devana ninety miles to the east and an hundred and twenty

to

to the south of Seteia ". The whole county of Chester appears to have been as much subject to the Brigantes in the time of Ptolemy, as the counties of Lancaster Westmoreland and Cumberland; and therefore Ptolemy equally cedes them all to the Brigantes. He particularly extends their possessions on this western side to the channel of the Dee, expressly assigning them all the region that reached up to the Ordovices, who certainly lived beyond it ". And he particularly fixes the Cornavii, not at all to the north of the Ordovices, in Cheshire, but absolutely and entirely to the east of them, in the regions of Shropshire and Staffordshire.

The eruption of the Carnabii must have been undoubtedly prior to the invasion of the Brigantes, and the invasion must have been equally prior to the migration of the Brigantes from our western coast into Ireland about the years 51 or 52 of the Christian æra ". The migration appears plainly, from the friendly accompaniment of the Lancashire Cangii with the Brigantes in it ", to have been many years after the invasion, and when the conquered had subdued the first natural impressions of aversion, and now began to associate in friendship with their conquerors. And the invasion must have been a considerable number of years after the eruption, as in the interval betwixt both the mighty conquerors of three or four counties were reduced enough in character to be attacked within their original dominions, and were sunk enough in reality to be even subdued within their native territories. But, Condate being thus possessed by the invading Brigantes, the unsubdued Carnabii of Flintshire Shropshire Staffordshire Warwickshire and Leicestershire naturally erected a new capital, and raised Uriconiu or Wrexeter to that honour. And Uriconiu appears to have been possessed of it at the period of the Roman invasion, Condate having then lost all its former lustre, and being reduced under the dominion of the Brigantes and the supremacy of Isur their metropolis ".
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' Mr. Percival therefore in *Phil. Trans.*, asserting the road to be traceable in the meadows near the bridge, suffered his imagination to impose upon his judgement. 'Such impositions will frequently happen in antiquarian pursuits, if a person be not upon his guard against them.—' This without doubt is the road which Camden conjectures to be Roman and which he erroneously mentions to extend from Middlewich to Northwich (p. 461.) — 'The name of Kinderton is probably formed only by the popular pronunciation of the letter R, as Pottage is invariably pronounced Porrage, Rachel is familiarly pronounced Tachey, Grammatica is now pronounced Grammar, and Arterith, a place near Carlisle and the scene of a battle in the Triades, is now called Atterith.—' Some of the people about Middlewich ridiculously place the Roman camp upon the area of Bellpool-Hill in the adjoining field, a mount surrounded with ditches and the Dane, but containing only half an acre in extent. — ' See b. I. ch. vi. f. 2. for this inserted station.—' Richard p. 24. —' P. 24. *Ad fluvium Devam primò siti erant Carnabii.* —' See Baxter in *Corinavii*, and *Carte* vol. I. p. 108, for two etymologies that are as idle in themselves as they are impertinent in their application.—' So *Condate Rhedonum* in *Antoninus &c.* —' *Horfeley Scotland* No. 34. —' *Gale's Antoninus* p. 53. —' See b. I. ch. v. f. 1. for *Seteia* being the *Dee*. —' Under the *Brigantes* (says *Ptolemy*) in the most westerly regions reside the *Ordovices*, and more easterly than the *Ordovices* are the *Cornavii*. —' Richard p. 51. —' See b. I. ch. xii. f. 4. —' Among the *Carnabian towns Reliquarum Mater Uriconium*, in Richard p. 24; and *Utriconion Cornoninorum* in *Ravennas*, or, as the *Vatican MS.* justly reads the words; *Uriconium Cornaviorum*.

In the first volume of *Archæologia*, published this very winter by the Antiquarian Society, I find that the late Thomas Percival Esq; fixes *Condate* at *Kinderton* with me. But he asserts the Roman road from *Manchester* to it to be "visible almost all the way" (p. 62.); when, as the Roman and the present road actually run together almost all the way, it is absolutely impossible for the Roman to be more than partially and occasionally visible.

visible. And he asserts the Roman camp to be "yet visible at Kinderton where the Dane and the Weaver join" (p. 62.); when the camp is certainly visible only in the remains of two ditches, and when these are really at the distance of two or three miles from the conjunction of the Weaver and the Dane. But Mr. Percival was but a young antiquarian when he died. Had he lived longer, his natural genius for antiquarian studies would have been more highly cultivated, his fund of antiquarian learning would have been considerably enriched, and his lively mind would have acquired new vigour and additional accuracy from the habit of observing and reflecting.

III.

Richard's 10th Iter,
From Brocavonacis

AD ALAUNAM m. p.

COCCIO m. p.

MANCUNIO 18.

Antonine's 10th Iter,
From Galacum

BREMETONACIS m. p. 27

COCCIO m. p. 20

MANCUNIO m. p. 17.

The road to Coccium or Blackrode did not commence immediately from the station. It might have begun at the south-western angle of it, have swept over the peninsula of Hulme-field, have crossed the Irwell at the point of the meadow, and have slanted away for Walkden Moor. And this route would have been the most direct line of the road. But this route was prevented by the badness of the morass betwixt the station and Hulme-fields, and, by the prudence of retaining so useful a barrier to the camp. The road to Blackrode actually began with the road to Kinderton, and actually proceeded with it for more than a mile. Taking the same course to Throstlenest, it there turned away to the right, and there forded the Irwell at the shallow which originally gave denomination to the neighbouring Trafford, and which was lately destroyed by the commissioners of the navigation. . And having passed the chanel of the river, it

then took its proper direction, and then first pointed towards the station at Blackrode. It ranged across the level eyes, mounted the little heights, crossed the high road to Warrington, and joined the present plain and continued remains of it near Hope-Hall. This was even in part the customary road into the present town from that region of the country as late as the present century. But in all this course from the river to the hall the road is absolutely invisible; and the remains that begin at the latter and extend for two miles together are the only decisive arguments of its course.

Proceeding along the foot of Harts-hill brow, and crossing Broomhouse-lane, it enters the estate of Hope-Hall. It first slanted along the side of Dovehouse-Croft, has been there turned up by the plough, and appeared to be seven yards in breadth. It is next discovered in the field which is beyond the old Hope-Hall, and which is denominated the Upper Broad-Hope, by the gravel beneath the surface, and in the next field or the Lower Broad-Hope by the long ridge above it. The seam of the gravel is a certain proof of the road, as the ground is all naturally clay; and the course of the ridge is very evident to the eye. In the next or Little Brook-field, when the ground is ploughed, the gravel appears very thick upon the brown furrows, and much thicker at the extremity of the field and on the margin of the brook. And in all these inclosures the track of the road is clearly marked to the farmer by the great luxuriance of the corn upon it.

The road here leaving the Hope-Hall estate and entering the Heath-fields, the gravel is easily discovered by the spade in the first of them, as it crosses the corner of the field. In the second Heath-field the ridge of the road appears again, but much greater and very considerable, extending ten or twelve yards in width, and having a fall on either side. Passing through a corner of the third Heath-field, the ridge continues still evident but reduced in the fourth and fifth, rises to a very considerable height in the sixth, and retains it in Heath-lane and in the field beyond it. In the last close the elevation of the road appears
equally

equally green and dry for twelve or thirteen yards in width, and is skirted by a border of rushes in the wet ground of either side. But at the extremity of this and in the next or Toad-hill Field, and in the field beyond both, the ridge entirely disappears, and the road is discovered only by the spade in the hither end of the second and at the further end of the third field, and by the gravel which the spade discovers lying upon the natural soil. And here the ridge of the road has been evidently taken away by the farmers, and the materials of it dispersed with an equal hand over a part of the sloping ground on the right.

Crossing the next field and the lane, the Roman road points through Chorleton Fold and through the ground beyond it to the lane. It there enters the Westwood-fields, and appears again with a small ridge ascending the slope of the second inclosure, and pointing to a large oak upon the fuzzy summit of it. At that oak and in the adjoining field the gravel of the road is very evident, lying very thick upon the road, and spreading several yards in width. It crosses the second field of Mr. Bailey in a plain ridge and the first field of Mr. Watson in a plainer. Losing its ridge at this end of Mr. Watson's second field, it recovers it with an addition at the other. But in the next or Mr. Blomley's field the gravel of it appears along all the three closes, lying in a tall ridge of ten or twelve yards in width. And in the adjoining fields of Brookside estate the road still appears, though less conspicuous, but retaining an evident ridge, and pointing directly by Drywood-house to Shaving-lane or Shaving-street about half a mile beyond it.

This name is retained by a direct and open lane for a mile together, and is lost only in the name of Stany-street a little on this side of Walkden-moor. There the Roman way becomes the present road, and passes in a direct line by Street-Yate and Win-Yates towards the village of Blackrode. There was it discovered about fourteen years ago parallel with the present road and at a little distance from it, lying a foot below the surface, covered with

with a strong crop of furzes and briars, and being three yards in breadth as well as eight or nine in length.

The name of Stany or Stony freet would naturally induce one to imagine, that the road which was so denominated must have been regularly paved. And so it certainly was. In the first field which it enters belonging to the Hope-Hall estate, and in the discovery which the plough made of it some years ago, it was found to be paved with large boulders. And the small piece of it which was laid open by the spade at Blackrode appeared to be a regular pavement, firmly jointed together and composed of heavy stones.

Such was the road that led to the Roman station at Blackrode. But were shall we fix the actual site of the station? The town, as it seems, having been very early destroyed, the traces of its antient dignity are almost entirely erased, and exist only at present in the faint retrospect of traditionary history and in the vague generalities of a winter's tale. The town, as it seems, having been entirely demolished, and afterwards built upon a different site, almost all the vestiges of its Roman masters have been long obliterated by the hand of time, and even the very existence of them forgotten in the chronicles of tradition. In this state of uncertainty, the attention of an antiquarian is naturally engaged at first by the name of Castle-Croft at the south-eastern extremity of the village, by the tradition of a castle upon it, and by the evident remains of ditches around it. But this can never have been the area of a Roman station. This is merely an area of half an acre in extent. And the station can never have been on this side of the village at all. It must assuredly have been on the other and upon the lofty bank of the river. There, and there only, is that particular in the site which the Romans generally secured in the position of a station, the concurrence of a brook with the river, and a commodious lingula of ground betwixt both. There, and there only, are those greater particulars in the site which the Romans more generally secured in the position of a station, the convenience of a stream and the advantage of a bank, that the one might afford a regular

gular supply of water to the garrison, and that both might furnish some natural defences to the camp.

Tradition asserts the town to have been originally erected, not, as now, upon the narrow crest of a lofty hill which has a long gradual descent on every side of it, but along the slope to the north-west and in the course of the road to Preston. And that part of the Roman road which was some time ago discovered at Blackrode lay pointing directly to the river. And to the river the actual distances in the Itineraries lead us. The chapel at Blackrode is just at the eighteenth measured mile along the curving course of the present road from the cross at Manchester. But from the station in Castle-Field, and along the course of the Roman road, which falls into the other betwixt the seventh and eighth measured mile from the Cross, and which measures only about five miles and a half to that point, the distance is only about sixteen English miles to the chapel. And from this reckoning we must deduct one sixteenth for the difference betwixt the horizontal and the road mile, as the road rises gently all the way from the station to the chapel, and is frequently intersected with narrow gullies; and we must add one fourteenth to the remainder for the difference betwixt the English miles and the Roman. The former settles the distance along the Roman road from the Castle-Field to the village at fifteen English horizontal miles. And the latter fixes it at sixteen horizontal Roman miles. But as the specified distance to the station at Blackrode is more than seventeen horizontal Roman miles, we must necessarily proceed for more than a mile in the line of the above-discovered road before we can expect to discover the site of the station.

Proceeding then in this line and for this length, we come to the river Douglas, which rises in the neighbouring Pike of Rivington, and descends by the town of Wigan to the sea. Proceeding in this line and for this length, we find ourselves very near the bottom of the winding descent to Preston, and near the extremity of the ground on which tradition has erected the original Blackrode. And here undoubtedly was the station of the Romans.

Romans. Here the Douglas forms a large crook in its channel, here a brook discharges its little urn into it, and here are natural or artificial banks on the sides. Here, closely adjoining to the site, is a considerable barrow; and tradition speaks of a considerable battle near it, in which a great officer was slain, many of the soldiers were cut to pieces, and the Douglas ran crimsoned with the blood to Wigan. And here, and here only along the whole bank of the river, are all these advantages to be found united.

This site comprehends two fields, the one of which is peculiarly denominated the *Rie-Hay*, and the other is called the *Smithy-field*, and both of which contain an area of seven or seven and a half statute-acres. Lying within a large curve of the Douglas and at the union of a small brook with it, they have the channel of the former and its steep bank of five six and seven yards in height for the whole of the northern side and for a part of the eastern, and the course of the latter and its steep bank of two four and five yards in height upon the western. And on the south must have been a ditch, winding from the extremity of the western bank along the side of the neighbouring field, and going, I suppose, across the present road obliquely to the high bank of the river below the barrow.

Thus situated, the station appears plainly to be the *Coccium* of Richard and Antonine and the *Rhigodunum* of Ptolemy. Both the former and the latter have been hitherto supposed to be the *Ribchester* of the present times. But I have formerly shewn the supposition to be false concerning *Coccium*. And the supposition concerning *Rhigodunum* is directly contrary to the testimony of Ptolemy.

The relative position of the towns in Ptolemy are nearly as inaccurate in general as his absolute positions are. Thus; to confine my observation to *Rhigodunum* in particular, that station is placed by Ptolemy both thirty miles to the east of *Vinnovium* or *Binchester* and as many to the west of *Devana* or *Chester*; when it is certainly, according to all the antiquarians and to truth, considerably to the west of the former and to the east of the latter.

But

But though his relative positions of the towns are thus greatly erroneous, yet his relative bearings of the coasts must necessarily, from the progressive particularity of his coasting and from the striking permanent nature of the marks in his description, be sufficiently exact. If therefore we collate his positions of the towns with his bearings of the coast, and determine the site from both, though we must expect that determination to partake of the errors in the former, we shall certainly come nearer the truth by this than by any other direction.

I shall hereafter shew the Setantian port of Ptolemy, which is in $17^{\circ} 20'$ of eastern longitude, to be within the mouth of the river Ribble and at the famous Neb of the Nese. Rhigodunum therefore was certainly not at Ribchester, because this is not, as that is placed, forty Roman miles in a right line to the east of that site; being, as Richard's Itinerary will hereafter inform us, only twenty-three upon the road. That port is also placed in $57^{\circ} 45'$ of northern latitude, and Rhigodunum in $57^{\circ} 30'$; a circumstance that shews the latter to be no-where upon the Ribble at all, as the channel of this river is so far from lying to the south-east of its mouth, that it actually lies to the north-east of it.

And as Rhigodunum is thus evinced from Ptolemy's bearings of the coast not to be Ribchester, it may as easily be evinced to be Blackrode only. I shall hereafter prove Belisama to be the river Mersey, the mouth of which is placed by Ptolemy in $17^{\circ} 30'$ and $57^{\circ} 20'$. Rhigodunum therefore, being in $18^{\circ} 00'$ and $57^{\circ} 30'$, is just thirty miles to the east and ten to the north of that mouth. This necessarily confines us to the south of Lancashire in general. This necessarily confines us to Blackrode in particular. Blackrode is the only station that in the east approaches the requisite distances, and is exactly about thirty Roman miles or twenty-eight English to the east of Black-Rock and about nine or ten to the north of it.

Thus plainly does Rhigodunum appear to have been intended by Ptolemy for the Coccium of Richard and Antoninus, and to have been the capital of the Sifuntian dominions. And the

former name is equally expressive as the latter of this the joint supremacy of both over the towns of Lancashire. The latter, which from the Roman termination of the word sufficiently appears to have been *Caer Coccui*, imports literally the City of Supremacy: and the former, which may be either *Rigod-dunum* or *Rigo-dunum*, and which analogy requires and history hereafter evinces to have been actually *Rigod-dunum*, as literally signifies the Fortress of Royalty. The Britons appear frequently to have adopted such abstract terms as these to denote their Kings and to denominate their Capitals. Such are *Bren*, *Pend*, and *Vint*, all signifying properly the highest place or the greatest dignity, and all applied constantly to the highest person or the greatest town⁶. Such more particularly is *Ragæ*, the Roman name of the present Leicester and the British appellation of the Conitanian capital; *Rageu* and *Rigod* being equally the British terms for Royalty, and equally with *Coccui* the designation of a metropolis⁷. And a duplicate of names appears to have been not uncommon among the Britons in general for their fortresses in the woods, *Camulodunum* and *Cambodunum* being two names for the same fortress, and the *Bovium* of Antoninus being only a different name for the *Banchorium* of Richard.

Thus was the British fortress which stood upon the site of the Roman *Coccium* the metropolis of the kingdom of Lancashire, before the Brigantes descended from the hills of Yorkshire and over-ran the country. And it must have been within the compass of that great forest which remained three or four centuries ago under the denomination of *Horwich Forest*; and the black and dreary site of which still continues very near unto it under the appellation of *Horwich Moor*. There must it have been placed by the Britons of Lancashire upon the alarming irruption of the *Carnabii* into the counties of *Flint*, *Shrewsbury*, *Stafford*, *Leicester*, and *Warwick*. Upon such an alarm, the first precaution of the *Sistuntir* would naturally be to fortify their exposed frontier on the south, and to construct the fortresses of *Veratin* and *Mancenon*. The second would be to settle other fortresses in other parts of their little kingdom, to which the inhabitants might

might retreat and the cattle might be driven in case of an actual invasion. The ford at Warrington was sufficiently secured, as I shall shew hereafter: And almost as probably was the ford at Stockport, because it could be almost as easily defended. But the fords at Wulston, Hollin's-Green, Stoneford, Stretford, Barlow, and Didbury could not be defended at all, because of the low grounds for a considerable way on either side of them, and for want of such a particular site as I shall shew Warrington to have possessed, and must therefore have been all neglected. And this rendered it the more necessary to construct two or three fortresses in the interior parts of the county. In consequence of this political necessity, the inland fortresses of Rerigon and Coccui must have been immediately laid out: as about half a century afterwards in all probability, upon a just suspicion of the neighbouring Brigantes, two new forts were settled at Concangion and at Bremetonac, and others perhaps at Colne at Littlebrough and at Castleshaw. But of all these, and perhaps of others, Coccui was appointed the metropolis or capital, because it was nearest to the center of the kingdom, and because it was fixed in the most considerable forest within it. And any invasion of the country from the northern the eastern or the southern quarters might easily be notified to the capital, and be communicated by it to the kingdom. A fire at Warrington, at Manchester, at Castleshaw, at Pendle-Hill near Colne, or at Longridge-Fell near Ribchester, would immediately be seen from the summit of Rivington-Pike, and might immediately be answered by another from it; as a fire upon some of the lofty mountains near Kendal might be answered by successive fires from Ingleborough-Hill at Overborough, from Pendle-Hill or Longridge-Fell, and from the Pike. And we find beacons familiarly in use among the primitive Britons, the besieged capital of one of our northern islands in the third century actually lighting up a fire upon one of the buildings, and Fingal immediately knowing "the green flame edged with smoke" to be a token of invasion and distress. Thus would all the towns of the Sifuntii be immediately apprized of an invasion, immediately open their

gates to receive the women the children and the cattle, and be immediately put into a condition of defence. And thus would Coccul, the capital of the whole, be as certain as a town could be to be the last attacked by an invading enemy, and to be the best prepared for a vigorous defence against them.

* See Horfeley p. 384, 385, 397, 398, &c.—* See b. I. ch. vi. f. 2. for another station upon a rie or river field.—* B. I. ch. v. f. 1.—* Ibid.—* See b. II. ch. ii. f. 4.—* Baxter in Brennus. So also Pendragon, Venta Silurum, &c.—* B. I. ch. v. f. 3.—* B. I. ch. v. f. 4.—* Offian Vol. I. p. 198.

In vol. I. of Antiquarian Essays, published this very winter, I find Mr. Percival and Mr. Watson both agreeing with me in fixing Cocculum at Blackrode, but both differing from me in the particular position of it. Mr. Watson gives an account, but too general and indistinctive, of the Roman road from Manchester to Blackrode (p. 70). And both Mr. Watson and Mr. Percival settle the station just at the entrance of the village from Manchester, and upon the area of the Castle-Croft, (p. 70 and 63); when the distance, the site, the tradition, and the remains all agree to carry it to the banks of the Douglas. Mr. Watson avers “the remains of a Roman station to be there,” (p. 70); when there are only the remains of a small modern castle, which gradually occasioned the present village to be constructed near it. Mr. Percival asserts “a middle-sized fort to be yet seen there,” but acknowledges that he “had not time to trace the whole of it” (p. 63); when the only remains are the relics of the small castle, and when these are all confined to the small area of the Castle-Croft. And Mr. Percival, in his wild way of asserting generally without any specification of proofs, affirms “a Roman road to be yet visible” from Blackrode to Penwortham, to Garstang, to Lancaster, and to Overborough, and the three intermediate stations to have been dropt in transcribing both by Richard’s and by Antonine’s Itinerary: And in his wilder way of supposing without advancing any reasons for the supposition, he imagines an Iter to be lost both in Richard
and

and in Antonine, that went from Kinderton to five stations at Warrington at Wigan at Peawortham at Garstang and at Lancaster (p. 63). Of assertions without argument, and of suppositions without warrant, the multiplication is easy and the fate obvious. And had Mr. Percival been left to the guidance of his own untutored genius in antiquities, he would have stocked Lancashire with an infinite variety of stations, and every Saxon castle, every modern chateau would have been fancifully aggravated into an actual Castrum. That the one only determinate characteristic of a station is the appellation of Caster affixed to the place or the concurrence of Roman roads at the point, has never yet been sufficiently attended to by the antiquarian critick. And, for want of such a decisive standard, the antiquarian mind has been left to brood fondly over its own ungrounded ideas, and to multiply stations at the random suggestions of the fancy.

C H A P. V.

I.

THES E are all the stations with which the two Itineraries represent Mancunium to be connected, and these are the roads which connected both. But there were also many others. Four other roads actually proceeded from Mancunium, one to Rerigonium or Ribchester, another to Olicana or Ilkley, the third to Buxton, and the fourth to Warrington. Thus greatly defective are the notices which the Romans have left us of their roads, even after the acquisition of a second Itinerary.

The road to Rerigonium must have issued from the station about forty-eight yards from the north-eastern angle of it, and must evidently have passed the large remaining cavity of the northern ditch by a bridge. The road was found about six years ago in the adjoining garden, and is still visible from its ridge, stretching across the breadth of it, and being five yards in width. It was also found about twenty years ago in the second garden, proceeding in the line of an hedge five yards in breadth, bordered with large squarish stones at the sides, and raised into a convexity of half a yard above the ground. Crossing the narrow lane beyond both, some traces of the convexity lately appeared, and pointed across the level of Camp-field to Mr. Philips's two houses in Quay-street. There the road was discovered about seventeen years ago near the door-way of the more easterly house, more than half a yard below the surface of the ground, four or five yards in breadth, and more than a yard deep in stones and gravel. In the gardens and in Camp-field it appeared to be continued, not directly in a line to Ribchester, but in a line flanting considerably to the east of it. This obliquity of the road was necessarily occasioned by the great curve of the Irwell into the margin of the Deanfgate, of the Old Church-yard, and of the Huntf-
bank,

bank, and into the right line of the road. And, continuing in this obliquity, the road must have passed among the present houses, have fallen into the present Dean's gate, and through the present area of the church have reached the opening into the hollow of Huntsbank.

At Huntsbank the rocks must then have fallen exactly as they now fall along it, very steeply to the Irwell on the west and perpendicularly to the Irke on the north; and the passage of the Romans must have been obstructed by them. To clear this obstruction and to continue the road, the labourers wielded their pickaxes, cut down the soft red rocks of the steep bank as we now see them, and made the first road that had descended along it to the rivers. Cutting the rocks on the eastern side of the intended way into a very lofty perpendicular, and leaving a small ledging of them on the western, which was also useful as a battlement for the road and a security against the precipice, they laid their materials upon the new-made plane of the rock betwixt them. And, to lessen the sharpness of the descent, they did not carry the line of it directly down the steep of the Huntsbank, but, as the face of the eastern side demonstrates, prudently gave it two or three small curvatures in the fall. Having gained the bottom of the bank and made a ford over the river, the road did not proceed on and climb the summit of the High Knolls. Having deviated from the right line to Ribchester in order to avoid the curving stream of the Irwell, it had necessarily turned in the church-yard to the left in order to reach the Huntsbank, as it had been before diverted to the right in order to reach the church-yard. And it now as necessarily turned again at the foot of the Huntsbank, and went off in a slanting line to Ribchester. Continuing therefore along the flat ground at the foot of the High Knolls, it must have passed obliquely through the gardens and houses on the right of the present road, have entered Strangeways-lane, and have edged along the park of Francis Reynolds Esq. There it was discovered some years ago in forming the present canal at the end of the park. And from this point it must have stretched away in the course of the present lane,

lane, flanting as this flants to the left, and having the chain of the High-Knolls gradually approaching it on the right. And about two miles from the station it was directly intersected by them.

This range of intersecting hills is called the Stony-Knolls, and consists of three parallel ridges, that commence from the extremity of the High-Knolls on the east, and extend to the stream of the Irwell on the west. Ascending the long slope of these Stony-Knolls in the narrow lane, we begin to see the traces of the road again, and observe the gravel of it very plainly distinguished from the natural sand, and appearing in great quantities along the lane. And these appearances increase as we proceed. At the upper end of the lane, the road enters the inclosures which are the ridgy summits of these hills, and which are peculiarly denominated the Stony-Knolls; and it is there popularly reported to be the effect of supernatural agency. In the entrance of the first inclosure the road appears at once in pretty good conservation, being a strong thick gravel, three yards in width, and lying upon the natural bed of clay and marl. Rising up the side of the ridge it is four yards in width, but upon the crest is reduced again to three, and points in a right line and in equal conservation over the next inclosure or the Higher Stony-Knoll. Descending the one in order to ascend the other, it winds a little on the right to the bottom, and then winds as much on the left to the top. In this the second inclosure it first dilates into four yards in width, afterwards contracts into three, and has a fall from it on both sides, very gentle on the right, but two three and four yards in depth upon the left. Sloping from the second ridge, and leaving the second inclosure, it enters a narrow lane, the line of strong gravel still continuing, especially on the left-hand side of the lane, and the road advancing up the third hill, the lesser knoll of the Broken-bank.

At the extremity of the lane, the road issues into the way that leads from Broughton-Ford to Kerfall-moor, and instantly becomes invisible. But the line of the road is obliquely across the above-mentioned way, obliquely down the sandy bank, then not broken

broken as it now is into an abrupt precipice, and along the course of the foot-way to Kersal-moor. And in this line Tradition asserts the road to have gone, leaving the present road above and the little cottage below on the right, and escaping the ever-springy ever-boggy declivities beneath on the left. But, upon the turning of the foot-way to reach the moor, the Roman road must have left it, have ascended the little steep in front, and have ranged about two hundred yards from the present hedge of the moor. Then crossing the horseway to the moor, and soon afterwards leaving the parish of Manchester, the road must have pushed through Prestwich and Ratcliffe, appears upon Cockey-moor, and extends through Watling-street in Calfhyde, over Bellthorn-moor above Darwent, and to the east of Blackburne, to the ford which is a little to the east of Ribchester.

From the epithet of Stony which the Roman road has affixed to the above-mentioned Knolls, it may very reasonably be inferred that the road was paved. And we have previously shewn the same name of Stany-street to have justly given the same intimation concerning the road to Blackrode. In the first and second inclosure of the Stony Knolls are many large paving-stones, disjointed from each other, but still appearing in the surface of the road. In the lane leading up to the inclosures, are even several detached and broken appearances of a regular pavement. And in the second garden near Castle-field, and on the site of Mr. Philips's house, the pavement was actually dug up, consisting of the largest boulders, and having two layers of stones upon a bed of gravel.

This gravel appears from the road upon the Knolls to be light-coloured and full of stones. But from what quarter of the country could the Romans derive it? The only gravel near the track of the road lies upon Dole-field, St. Mary's Church-yard, and one or two other places, and is all invariably of a red-brown hue; and no large gravel-pits appear in any of them. Along the rest of the track, the soil is clay for a little way at first and light red sand continually afterwards. All the resources for

gravel at present, along the whole track of the road, are placed merely in the attending channel of the river. And from the same resources must the Romans have furnished themselves with the gravel of their road within the parish. From those unexhausted and inexhaustible shoals of gravel in the Medlock and in the Irwell which were immediately at the ford of Knot-mill, and are now immediately below the bridge of Salford, at Bolton-wheel near Strangeways, and at Scarweel above Broughton-Ford, were the materials undoubtedly collected. Thus constructed with water-gravel appears to have been the broad stem of the two roads to Kinderton and to Slack in Castle-field, as the fragments of rock which have been occasionally discovered in the gravel sufficiently demonstrate. And this construction of Roman roads with water-gravel refutes at once the wild prejudices that at present prevail against it; as the compactness of the gravel under Mr. Philips's house, and the firmness of the road in Castle-field, demonstrates it to be equally binding with the land-gravel. But, to give it this binding quality, something more is required than the present constructors of our northern roads take the trouble to practise. To give it this quality, the gravel should not be used in the naked state in which it is left by the river, deprived of its sand and loam by the filtering waters, and thereby rendered incapable of binding. Being laid upon the road in this condition, the stones and pebbles are violently ground against each other by the strong pressure upon the whole, and are soon powdered into dirt. But the Romans suggest to us a very different procedure, and advise prudence to add what the water has washed away. This we see exemplified in the road upon Stony-Knolls. And this was discovered to have been practised in the road along Castle-field and in the way under Mr. Philips's house.

Thus constructed, must the causeway have extended to the eager current of the Ribble and to the elegant site of Ribchester beyond it. This village the numerous remains of ruined magnificence, and the great multiplicity of Roman urns, Roman coins and Roman monuments, have long demonstrated to have been

a considerable city of the Romans. And these relicks of antiquity have been carefully collected by Camden by Leigh by Gale and by Horfeley.* But the greater antiquities of Ribchester have been entirely overlooked by these criticks, as they still continue unnoticed by the curious eye of observation, and now strongly invite the delineating hand of antiquarianism.

The Portus Sifuntiorum or the Σιφυντιων λιμην is mentioned equally by Richard and by Ptolemy. But the actual site of it is yet unsettled. Baxter supposes it to be the mouth of the Mersey, Horfeley the mouth of the Ribble, and Stukeley the mouth of the Lune†. To decide amid this variety of opinions, let us endeavour to ascertain what position is really given it by Ptolemy's Geography and by Richard's Itinerary. If they differ, we are not entirely without a guide. Remains may make that probable which both leave uncertain. But if the two first agree in one testimony, we can have little doubt. And if all the three agree, we are actually certain.

The absolute positions of the towns in Ptolemy are well known to be extremely erroneous. And his relative positions I have already shewn to be little better*. But in his coasting along the shores of the island this Geographer appears to be pretty accurate. And the progressive particularity of a description of the coast, and the striking permanent nature of the marks in such a description, as I have already observed, must necessarily give it a sufficient exactness†. This then must be our standard. And let us now make use of it.

Taking Ptolemy's account of the western shore but inverting his order, let us begin with the estuary of Sabriana, certainly and confessedly the Severn-sea. From this point the coast goes directly to the west for an hundred and eighty miles, to the promontory Octopitarum; plainly skirting all the southern coast of Glamorganshire and Caermarthenshire, and the southern and south-western shore of Pembrokeshire to St. David's Head. From that promontory, in advancing ninety miles to the north, he goes first sixty to the east and then twenty to the west, to the pro-

montory of the Cangani; plainly winding along the deep bay which is formed by St. David's Head on one side and by Brachypult Point on the other, and the whole extent of which is frequently denominated Cardigan Bay. So far we are absolutely certain. The remarkable nature of the shore precludes all possibility of mistake.

From Brachypult Point, in eighty miles more to the north, the Geographer goes an hundred and fifty to the east, as in twenty-five more he turns and goes ten to the west. In the hundred and fifty miles to the east, he clearly passes through the strait of Menai to the bottom of the deep bay which is formed to the north and north-east of Brachypult Point. And in the ten miles afterwards to the west he comes out of the bay. But here let us follow him gradually.

In the first twenty miles to the north of Brachypult Point he goes forty to the east, to the river Toisobius. This appears at first sight to be the river Conway. And as both Richard's and Antonine's Itineraries place the town of Conovium hereabouts, and the former expressly calls the river by the two names of Toisobius and Conovius, it is undoubtedly that river.

From the Toisobius, in forty miles to the north, Ptolemy proceeds eighty to the east, to the æstuary Seteia. This must certainly be the opening of the Dee, as that could not be missed by a person ranging up the coast, and, if not missed, must come next in succession. And Ptolemy's distance of forty miles right north and south from the Toisobius to the Deva corresponds with great exactness to the more indirect distance upon the road, at which the Itineraries of Richard and Antonine concur to set the town of Deva from the town of Conovium; the former fixing the one at fifty miles from the other, and the latter at fifty-one. Both arguments together form an irrefragable proof, that the Seteia of the Geography cannot possibly be any other æstuary than the Deva of the Itineraries and the present Dee. And this is the more particularly insisted upon, as it is of importance in itself, and as it has been mistaken even by our learned collector from the antients.

From

From the Seteia, advancing twenty miles to the north, Ptolemy goes thirty to the east, to the æstuary Belisama. This is plainly the Mersey; because Belisama is at the distance of the Mersey from the Dee; and because such a considerable object as the Mersey could not be overlooked any more than the Dee. And thus far we are certain of our conclusions.

But the Geographer, ranging along the coast of Lancashire for twenty-five miles from the Mersey, turns with the turning shore, and goes ten miles to the west, to the harbour of the Siftuntii. This sufficiently argues the harbour not to be at the mouth of the Mersey. And this equally argues it not to be at the mouth of the Lune. The former is evidently too southerly for it, and the latter is as evidently too northerly. Twenty-five miles to the north of the Mersey can carry us only to one place convenient for an harbour, the mouth of the Ribble. All our harbours at that period must have been the natural ports which are formed by the openings of rivers. And the opening of the Ribble must necessarily have been the next great particular after the Mersey which must have challenged the notice of the coasting Geographer; as, like the Dee and the Mersey, it is clearly too considerable an object to be either missed by inattention or omitted by design. Here Ptolemy has undoubtedly fixed the harbour. And here the course of Richard's Itinerary and the present remains of antiquity concur to fix the station*.

Upon Fullwood-moor, near Preston appear the evident remains of a Roman road, which is popularly denominated the Watling-street, which ranges from east to west, and which tradition asserts and traces demonstrate to have extended across the island. Along this therefore, the only Roman road that so ranges and

* And thus the immediately succeeding æstuary of Moricambe in Ptolemy, which means The Great Bend or Haven, must certainly be the large opening into the land of Lancashire which is formed by the shores of Lancaster, Cartmel, Ulverston, and Walney Island, and into which the rivers Ken and Lune discharge their waters, as this is the only Great Bend before we come to the æstuary of Irua, which is next mentioned by Ptolemy, and which is confessedly and clearly the mouth of the Eden.

is so extended, must the seventh Iter of Richard have undoubtedly proceeded. That Iter is thus given us :

A PORTU SISTUNTIORUM

Eboracum usque sic ;

RERIGONIO m. p. 29

Ad Alpes Peninos — 8

Alicana — 10

Ifurio — 18

Eboraco — 16.

From the Roman name of the Ribble-mouth, *Portus Sistuntiorum*, that æstuary appears to have been employed by the Romans as an harbour for their vessels. But it was then a much more considerable æstuary than it is at present. This appears sufficiently from the preference which the Romans gave it before the æstuaries of the Mersey and the Lune, though it now affords a much worse harbour than either of them, admits ships only at the tide of flood, and even then has only a navigable channel of an hundred yards in breadth. And with this observation, as decisive as it is obvious, agree the present appearances of the channel, the popular tradition concerning it, and the more recent discoveries about this particular part of it.

From Ribchester to the sea the singular margin of the river is formed by a level of sand, and is bordered by a steep bank of earth; the latter of which is evidently the original boundary, and the former as evidently the original strand, of the flowing tide. Thus banked with high lands upon both sides, the natural channel of the river gradually widens, till at the mouth it even opens into the ample extent of eight or nine miles in breadth. At such an opening, unobstructed by the present sands, the tide must have entered with a vast body of water, and must have flowed up even to Ribchester. It now reaches within six or seven miles from this ancient village. And that it once actually flowed up to it, is intimated by the popular tradition which asserts the river to have been formerly navigated, and is evident from the many anchors

anchors rings and nails of small vessels that have been discovered near the extensive area of the church. These indeed may be supposed to have been wrought at a Roman foundery there, and to have been afterwards transported by land to the vessels at the Ribble-mouth. But such a supposition would be as absurd in itself as it would be unsupported by evidence. The site of Ribchester has no mines of iron in its neighbourhood. Every site had then a sufficiency of fuel around it. And the trouble of the conveyance and the expense of the carriage would be equally great and superfluous. These anchors rings and nails must have belonged to the vessels of the garrison; and the large still remaining cut upon the western side of the church-yard does plainly confirm it. That cut extends for two hundred yards from the river to the north, and is for part of its extent three or four yards in depth and eight or nine in breadth. It could never have been designed for a military fosse, because it has no fosses or vestiges of fosses at all corresponding with it. It could have been designed only for the dock of the garrison, as the channel of it falls with a gradual descent to the river. It was clearly a slip by which at high water a new boat was launched into the river, or an old boat brought up from it for reparation. The ground adjoining to it on the east must have been originally the dock-yard of the town. The vessels must have ordinarily lain in the river moored to the banks by rings. And these must have been the many flats and barges in which the Romans made voyages upon the river, warping up the channel with the tide, and laden with the contents of the ships that lay at anchor in the harbour.

Thus plainly does the Ribble appear to have been navigated by the Romans from the mouth of its current to the town of Ribchester. Thus plainly does the tide appear to have flowed up the channel of the river to the feet of the town, covering all the rocks in its channel and all the sandy meadows and soft marshes on its margin, and being bounded only by the natural limits of its lofty banks. And the great difference which now appears in the flow of the tide could never have been occasioned

by

by the pressure of the interior ocean, as the Romans denominated St. George's Channel", and by the gradual settlement of the sands at the mouth of the river. Had the difference been thus occasioned, the Mersey upon one side and the Lune upon the other must have partaken of the same fate, and have been blocked up with the same sands. It must have been produced by a cause as partial as the effects appear to be, and confined, like them, to the stream of the Ribble. And tradition, the faithful preserver of many a fact which history has overlooked or forgotten, speaks confidently of such a cause, ascribing the final ruin of Ribchester to the overwhelming violence of an earthquake. Such a cause without doubt must have originally changed the nature of this once the most remarkable æstuary within the county, and have thrown up that large and broad barrier of sand which crosses the opening of it, almost choaks up the inlet of the tide into it, and contracts the original breadth of the navigable channel from its majestic extent of eight or nine miles to the narrow span of an hundred yards.

Such was the æstuary of the Ribble when it was employed as an harbour by the Romans. And from the great singularity of the name which the Romans conferred upon it, **THE HARBOUR OF LANCASHIRE**, it appears to have been the only river in the county which was employed as an harbour by them. Passing through the center of the Siftuntian country, and opening with the largest mouth into the sea, the Romans naturally preferred it to the Mersey or the Lune, and made it the one port for the county of Lancaster. And here they shipped off the commodities of Lancashire, its cattle and its hides, its neat baskets and its large hunting-dogs, as the Romans of Italy were particularly fond of both the latter, and imported the commodities of Gaul and the dresses of Italy".

The station which was called by the same appellation of the Siftuntian Harbour was certainly erected upon the margin of it, and consequently within the mouth of the present Ribble. And we shall not wander long in the search of its site. It must have been at the termination of the above-mentioned road, as the

the line of that road is directed across Fullwood-Moor to the west. But the line can never be carried to the actual mouth of the Ribble. This line must abut somewhere upon the channel at the distance of several miles from the mouth. And in fact it points fully towards the famous Neb of the Nese, the extremity of the nose or high promontory of land which projects into the course of the channel. Near the conclusion of that part of the way which is denominated Watling-street, looking along the track of the proceeding road to the west, in a clear day one sees the Neb of the Nese directly in a line beyond it.

And the specified distances in the Itinerary concur exactly with the direction of the road. Thus, as Rerigonium is obviously Ribchester, the specified distance from the harbour of the Siftuntians to the station of Ribchester is 23 Roman or about 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ English miles. This distance necessarily carries us from the mouth of the river, and leads us up the winding channel of it. Thus advancing, about ten miles from the mouth we come to the above-mentioned Neb of the Nese on the left. This is about nine miles from Preston by the level track of the Marshes, and about eleven by the circuit of the higher grounds; as Preston is about twelve miles from Ribchester. This, in the line which the Roman road must have taken, keeping the higher ground, but not curving on the right to reach Preston and not making a return on the left to recover the line, must have been about twenty-one from Ribchester, and is therefore exactly at the requisite distance from it.

Thus do these two arguments concur to fix the Roman station about a mile to the west of Freckleton and at the well-known Neb of the Nese. And here is even now a pretty commodious harbour. Here the Ribble forms a large half-moon facing the south, and receiving a small back-water into it from the north. Here the Ribble is secured from the violence of the winds by the high lands which skirt it, is screened from the violence of the tide by the projection of the Nese, and has even now a breadth of a quarter of a mile and a depth of fifteen feet upon

upon the ebb. And here is even now the little harbour of Preston, a large warehouse being erected upon a mole in the channel, and several vessels coming to it from London from Wales and from Ireland.

On the high lands of the Nefs then must have been the Roman station which guarded the harbour of the Ribble. And on the very Neb, the sharp extremity of these high lands, must the station have actually stood, as there the lofty banks of the Nefs would form a sufficient barrier upon three sides. But though the name is retained, the Neb has been long washed away. This appears at once upon an attentive survey of the land which is the western horn, as the high ground at the mouth of the Savok is the eastern, of the large semicircle of rising grounds that curves along the channel of the river. The western horn has certainly no Neb existing at present, the land at the Nefs running nearly in a right line from east to west. And this equally appears from the ravages which the water has here made upon the banks. That conspicuous point which is still denominated the Neb of the Nefe has lost nearly two statute-acres of ground within these forty years, and from the broken mouldering condition of the banks both on the east and south appears to be losing every day. As the Roman station therefore must have been upon the extremity of this promontory, the site of it and all its remains must have long melted away into the channel below. Upon that site, secured by its natural banks of fifteen or twenty yards in height upon three sides, and defended by a ditch upon the fourth, it must have fully commanded the course of the Ribble, which then perhaps did not at low water spread out a long beach of gravel on the north-west, which certainly as now winded round the west and the south, and which extended into a safe and ample harbour on the east.

From this station a road goes away directly along the high grounds, and is visible (as I have mentioned before) upon Fullwood-Moor, leaving the town of Preston about a mile on the right. It crosses the present road to Lancaster just before the latter makes an angle to leave the Moor. And going visibly
along

along the Moor for a quarter of a mile, it then assumes the name of Watling-street, and retains it for a whole mile, appearing at first merely a sharp broken ridge, afterwards widening, and at last rising two or three feet above the natural soil and spreading fourteen and twenty yards in breadth. And it terminates with the Moor in a large blunted ridge at the hedge of the closes, pointing fully to the village of Ribchester, and ending at Anchor-Hill near the town.

The name of this station and of the previous British town is compounded of the British words RE RIGON, denoting the peculiar site of both, and signifying to the north of the current. Re in its primary import signifies the particular position Before; and Is, Below, is the regular term of opposition to it. Thus Yorkshire as well as Lancashire having been first inhabited from the south, the two towns which were raised upon the sites of Ribchester and Aldborough assumed the names of Rerigontium and Isurium. The former received its appellation, not merely, as Mr. Baxter supposes of other towns that are similarly denominated, because it was upon the banks of the Ribble, but because it was Before or to the north of that river. The latter received its appellation, not, as Dr. Gale fancies, because the Ure descends at Aldborough into the lower grounds, but because Aldborough was situated Below or to the south of the Ure. And Rigon is the plural of Rig a flow, and, like Avon the plural of Av Water, signifies a stream or current.

The channel of the Ribble appears to have always formed a curve at this place, which did not as now face the southern bank, but opened directly upon the northern. This is evident from the nature and circumstances of the northern bank. Great have been the encroachments which the Ribble has made upon the bank of the town within these sixty years only. One whole street of houses and a range of orchards and gardens have been carried away by the stream. The earth daily crumbles and falls into the channel. And the church itself, raised as it is upon a lofty bank and placed at a little distance from the margin of it, is likely to be swept away in sixty years more. But while this

has been the case with the bolder bank of the town, the ground immediately to the east of it, too low to have been ever ravaged by the floods, must now extend as far as it ever extended into the channel, and the lively brook betwixt both must have always fallen into the Ribble at the point of its present conjunction with it. The Ribble, passing over the Roman ford at the bridge and running directly under the southern bank, is thrown by a shelve of it directly against the site of the town, and joins the lively brook exactly at the point where the lofty bank of the town commences. In this the original disposition of the current, every projection of the northern bank beyond the immediate line of the conjunction must have formed a curve in the channel, and the Ribble must even within these hundred years have curved facing to the northern bank. The large cut that is carried from Anchor-Hill to the river, by its continuance even at present no less than thirty or forty yards more southerly than the above-mentioned line of conjunction, absolutely demonstrates the bank to have extended as many yards at least to the south of the line. And the great devastation which the current has made upon the bank of the town within these sixty years sufficiently proves the projection to have been much more considerable originally. The bold bank of Ribchester must have actually come forward so far into the valley, as to range in a straight line with the headland immediately below the town, which now pushes itself a considerable way into the valley, and remains a striking signature of the original projection of the whole. A projection, which till these sixty years had withstood the wasteful fury of a rapid current directly beating upon it for a long succession of ages, must have been originally continued with the continuing headland more than half way over the valley. And the Ribble, pushing its stream immediately against the base of the large projection, was constrained to carry its broken waters all along the eastern and all along the southern sides of it, in order to reach the channel in which it now moves immediately below the town.

Upon this great angular curve in the current of the Ribble
and

and at the south-easterly point of the whole projection, upon the extremity of a bank that slopes gently in one regular decline from the neighbouring hills to the channel of the river, must the Sifuntian Britons have placed the town of Rerigonium. The river was a natural barrier upon two sides. A fosse undoubtedly ran across the isthmus. And a great forest swept extensively round it upon all “.

Such was the site of Rerigonium in the time of the Britons. And such was it in the time of the Romans also. What originally changed the nature of the site, tore away the angular projection of the ground, and opened a way for the river to gain as much upon the bank as the bank had before usurped upon the river, it may seem impossible to ascertain at this distant period of time. But, as I have mentioned above, the popular tradition refers the destruction of the town to the ravages of an earthquake. And such an awful convulsion must have certainly been the original cause, have at once perhaps choaked up the former channel of the river on the east and south by the falling in of the banks, and, loosening the soil of the remainder, have rendered it less able to bear the whole collected weight of waters that now rushed upon it. The more pointed part of the projection perhaps was swept away immediately, and the right line of the original bank was left to be gradually preyed upon by the current. And since these depredations have continued from age to age, the river has acquired new force as it obtained more advantages, all the arts of preventive industry have been hitherto ineffectual, and the stream bears every day more forcibly upon the site of the town.

By this remarkable catastrophe in the site of Rerigonium the *Caer* of the Britons and the *Castrum* of the Romans must have been totally carried away, and the visible and invisible remains of both have been equally buried, where some have been actually discovered, under the level bed of sands which forms the meadows on the southern shore of the Ribble. And, in consequence of this remarkable catastrophe, the river, having formed a deep curving indent into the northern bank, now winds

winds along the sunken streets of the Roman-British town, and now rolls over the levelled remains of the Roman-British houses. And, near the foot of the little street that leads down to the river, has been formerly seen in a dry summer a long extent of a thick wall, composed of regularly squared stones, and forming evidently the basis of a great building; as about this part of the river in general whole pillars, broken capitals and bases, and Roman coins and Roman inscriptions have been frequently discovered within the channel.

From this station, besides the continued road of this seventh Iter, which I shall have occasion to mention hereafter, and among the vicinal roads to Lancaster to Overborough and to Manchester, one passes through Whalley and points to Colne ". This the British appellation of the town, this the concurrence of a Roman road from Cambodunum at it, this the voice of tradition and the appellation of Caster, evince to have been the site of a station. The road from Cambodunum stretches visibly over Stainland-Moor, passes through the townships of Barkisland and Rishworth, crosses the Devil's Causeway and the Roman road from Manchester to Ilkley ", and must therefore have assuredly terminated at Colne. A considerable quantity of Roman coins has been discovered near Colne, at Wheatley-lane, and by Emmet ". And the station must have been fixed where tradition fixes it, upon the tall eminence of Caster-Cliff, and about a mile from the present town. There appears the evident skeleton of a Roman station at present, a regular vallum encircled by a regular fosse. And, standing on the summit of a lofty cliff, it commands a very extensive view of the country around it ".

This station appears plainly from the present name of the town to have been distinguished by the British appellation of Colania among the Romans. The British name of the town could have resulted only from the British name of the station. And accordingly we find the anonymous Chorography placing such a station among these hills; mentioning it next to one which was certainly among them, the Cambodunum of Antonines, and giving it in different MSS. the different names of Calunium and Cola-

Colanā *. This name of the station must have been derived from the same name of the river upon which it was erected, and which is now denominated Colne Water. And the river must have enjoyed the name in common with many others in the island, particularly the Colne of Colchester, and the Colne of St. Albans Uxbridge and Colnebrooke. Nor were the names of these latter rivers derived, as has been frequently supposed *, from the Roman colony of Camulodunum on the one and of Verulamium upon the other. The names were given, not only to these rivers which once had colonies upon them, but also to several others which never had any at all, as to our own in Lancashire, to the Colne of Gloucestershire, and to the Calne of Wiltshire. And the names of all are derived from the British language, Col-aun in that language signifying the narrow river. Thus we have the river Cole at Colehill in Warwickshire, Caldes Cal-dur or Narrow Water in Yorkshire and Lancashire, the river Colamon near the isthmus of Scotland, the river Collan within the county of Kilkenny in Ireland, and the river Colun or Clun within the county of Shrewsbury in England; Amon or Avon being changed into Aun An or Un, as A-Lug-Amon is softened into Alanna into Lan and into Lun, the varying appellation of the same river within our own country. And thus the Colan of Gloucestershire Wiltshire and Lancashire was gradually abbreviated into Colne, just as the same Alanna has been abbreviated into Alne in the Warwickshire Alnepoth or Alcester *.

* See the same in another Roman road, Homsley p. 451.—
 Phil. Transf. vol. XLVII. p. 228.—* Dr. Stukeley upon Richard p. 50, 68, and 88.—* B. I. ch. iv. f. 3.—* P. 23.—* Richard's Iter 1. and Antonine's Iter 11.—* P. 27. Richard calls the Mersey, and not the Dee, Seteia. And so likewise in his Map. The etymology of this name is nothing more than Se and Teia or Deia, The Dee (see b. I. ch. vii. f. 4. a Note), as the Britons of Anandale are called equally Elgovæ and Selgovæ by the
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the same Ptolemy, &c. — * Leigh's N. H. of Lancashire b. iii. p. 2. and 6. — * Leigh b. iii. p. 2. and 7. unwittingly argues against the former navigableness of the river by barges, because it could not be navigated by ships. And see a draught of one of the rings in Tab. I. No. 21. and of one of the nails in No. 24. — * Richard p. 21 and 43. — * See b. I. ch. ix. f. 5. and ch. xi. f. 2. — * See Leigh b. iii. p. 6. — * Baxter in Regulbium and Robogdium, and Gale in Isurium. Thus Cæsar speaks of the *Southern or Inferiour* point of Britain (p. 89.), and Ptolemy constantly uses the preposition *sub* or under to signify the south and *super* or above to indicate the north. — * This forest is described in an old boundary-record as two in name and one in effect, beginning at the bridge of the Ribble, going to Steop-clough, betwixt Ribchester and Haderfal,—betwixt Chippin and Gofnaig,—to the water of Lond or Laund—by the demesne of Hornby—to the water of the Lone or Lune—and the current of the Ken or Kent, down the Kent to the sea, along the coast of the sea to the foot of the Wire—and of the Ribble, and up the Ribble to Ribble-bridge.—A verdict of 9 Hen. III. p. 237. of Kuerden, folio, a MS. in the library at Manchester Arch. A. 18, 5, and a rude ill-arranged half-illegible Common-place-book for the Antiquities of Lancashire. — * Mr. Percival in Phil. Trans. vol. XLVII. and see next section — * See b. I. ch. iv. f. 1. — * Leigh b. iii. p. 10. — * This account I received in a letter from the reverend Mr. Wilson of Colne.—The late bishop of Carlisle and myself were both at Colne very nearly at the same time, and both failed of success in our searches, though the name, the remains, the tradition are all so striking.— * Gallunium the immediately succeeding name in Ravennas has been fondly supposed to be Whalley (Gale in Ravennas and Percival in Phil. Trans.). But none of Ravennas's names can with any propriety be applied to a place till it has been previously proved to be a station. Whalley has never been proved, and certainly was not, a station. It has not either of the two only determinate signatures of a station, the Roman appellation of Caster or the concurrence of Roman roads at it. And Gallunium indeed

is nothing else (I apprehend) than a repetition of the same name, Calunium and Gallunium being evidently the same word. And such repetitions are not uncommon in this inaccurate Chorography. — "Particularly by Leigh by Gibson and by Baxter. — "Ossian's Poems vol. II. p. 219, Camden's Ireland c. 1354 and Shropshire c. 646, and Richard I. c. 14. One of the two rivers at Alcester is still called the Alne, and the town which now stands upon the Arrow formerly stood upon the Alne: See Leland vol. IV. p. 54. Hearne.

In the volume published this winter by the Antiquarian Society of London we have the two Lancashire antiquarians, Mr. Watson and Mr. Percival, very busily employed, as Mr. Percival had been employed before in the Phil. Transf. vol. XLVII, in fixing a Roman station at the town of Bury and about nine statute-miles from Manchester. But the one great reason adduced by both is surely very incompetent to the occasion. The name of Bury, says Mr. Watson p. 69, denotes it to have been Roman; and Mr. Percival had asserted the same before (Phil. Transf. vol. XLVII). Mr. Percival may stand excused for the assertion. He knew too little of the Saxon language to be capable of judging. But what shall I say for my learned friend, a critic in the language? Bury certainly carries no Roman signature at all with it. Bury merely signifies in the Saxon either a castle or a market-town. And "the visible marks of a station" which Mr. Watson and Mr. Percival imagine themselves to have discovered at Bury (Archæologia p. 69. and Phil. Transf. vol. XLVII) are merely the relicks of a more modern castle. This is actually mentioned in our Mancunian records; and tradition derives all the stones of the present church from it. And this actually lies more than a mile to the right of the road to Ribchester. The not attending to the one only determinate character of a station, the Roman appellation of Caster at the place or the coincidence of Roman roads at the point, has strangely seduced the generality of our antiquarians into a wilderness of error. And upon the application of this useful test we see Bury, Blackburne (Archæ-

ologia, Mr. Percival's Essay, p. 64), and a thousand other stations, all instantly vanish,

And, like the baseless fabrick of a vision,
Leave not a wreck behind.

II.

ANOTHER road of the Romans appears to have been laid from the station of Mancunium, and to have proceeded into Yorkshire. Branching probably from the road to Cambodunum about Ancoates-lane, and traversing the township of Manchester obliquely, it must have passed through Street-fold in Moston, by Street-bridge in Chatherton, and by Street-yate in Ryton, and pointed evidently for Littleborough Blackstone-Edge and Ilkley. These three appellations of Street very clearly ascertain the general direction of its course, and sufficiently supply the absolute want of any actual remains, or even of any traditional notices concerning it.

Leaving Street-fold and the parish, the road must have proceeded by Street-bridge and Street-yate, and was lately dug up near Rochdale. About a quarter of a mile to the right of the town and near the road from Oldham to it, the way was cut through in making a marle-pit, and appeared several yards in breadth and deeply gravelled. And upon Blackstone-Edge it is intersected, as I have mentioned before, by the road from Cambodunum to Colania. Having crossed the edge, it ranges nearly from north to south, being discovered in this direction along the eastern side of these mountains. Leaving Halifax considerably on the right, and Ellinworth only a little on the left, the line passes through Dinham Park, running a good way to the west of Bradford and a little to the west of Cullingworth. Betwixt Hainworth and Cullingworth the road is visible, a paved way more than twelve feet broad and neatly set with the stones of the country. It appears in several places upon Harding or Hadden Moor, crossing the height of the moor, and pointing upon the Moor-

Moor-house above Morton, and is again visible upon Rumbles Moor. Upon the broad extent of this waste wilderness, it appears (as I am informed) a raised paved road overgrown with turf, keeping upon the shelf of the hills to avoid the cliffs upon one side and the morasses on the other, and pointing directly beyond the high steep rocky mound of the moor to the gay valley of the Wharf and the little town of Ilkley within it.

The town of Olicana or Alicana is utterly unnoticed by Antoninus, but is mentioned equally by Ptolemy and by Richard. The present remains at Ilkley evince it to have been a stationary town. And the seventh Iter of Richard argues it to have been denominated Alicana. It lies at the distance of more than forty miles from Manchester, but had probably, as I shall shew hereafter, a lesser station about the mid-way betwixt both.

The town of Ilkley is placed upon the great post-road that runs from Kendal to York, but is almost barred up by trackless wastes and impracticable roads upon every other quarter. The town of Ilkley lies snug in the hollow of a valley, mean dirty and insignificant, known only to the antiquarian for some curious inscriptions that have been discovered at it, and to the invalid for a fine spring of mineral water, that has been found about a mile from it. It was more remarkable formerly, but seems not to have been ever considerable. It stands upon an agreeable site, having a gentle descent to the north, and the Wharf flowing briskly in the front of it. This river, one of the three great streams by which the West-Riding of Yorkshire is so usefully watered for cultivation and so beneficially divided for commerce, rises among the hills a little to the west of the town, and washes the gentle eminence upon which it is erected. This river, very different from the Air, and remarkably swift in its course, received from the Britons an appellation directly the reverse of the Air's, and was denominated Ger-ab Ger-av or the eager water, a name in popular pronunciation contracted into Gerb Verb Guerf or Wharf. And this river, remarkably beautiful in its appearance, was particularly formed into a divinity by the Britons, and a large handsome altar has been found near the bank of it

consecrated by a Roman officer to Verbeia the Goddess-Nymph of the current¹.

In this village center several roads of the Romans. The road which comes from Mancunium and appears upon Rumbles Moor is found again upon Middleton and Blueburgh-house Moors beyond the town, paved, like that, with stones uncommonly large, and edged, like that, with still larger, and points, I suppose, to Catarick. Another road stretches over the hills from the west, and is evidently the same which is traversed by the seventh Iter of Richard. This road is traceable for three miles together from Ilkley, and then appears very conspicuous for a whole mile, lying upon a large moor in the township of Old Addingham, parallel with and a few yards to the south of the present road to Skipton, and crossed nearly at right angles by the turning road to Colne, which falls afterwards into another road, nearly parallel with both though a good deal more southerly than either. And from all this line of the road it appears demonstrably not to have been directed to Colne at all. It plainly points some miles to the north of Colne and some to the south of Skipton, and bears undoubtedly upon Broughton, a small village in Yorkshire about six statute-miles to the north of Colne and four or five to the south-west of Skipton, and lyes upon the bank of a small current in a valley. And Broughton must certainly have been the station which is here denominated in Richard Ad Alpes Peninos. The whole range of hills which runs from Derbyshire into Scotland was naturally denominated by the Britons, as a part of the mountains of Switzerland is denominated to the present day, Alp Penin, the Penine or Apennine Alps, the high heads or the lofty hills². And this part of the range in some measure retains the general appellation to the present period, an high abrupt peak to the south-west being still denominated Pen-hull Pendle or the head-height, a large lofty moor still nearer to Broughton being called Pen-how Pennow, or the head-hill, and a great high mountain a little to the north of Broughton being still named Peni-guent Penigent or the principal head³. And the road from Broughton, like the seventh Iter of Richard, is carried

ried through *Alicana* to *Muriu*. Striding across the fields near Ilkley, it traverses Banks's Croft, crosses the lane leading to the church from Bradford and Halifax and denominated the Town-gate, enters the Scafe-Croft, and has been found among the inclosures for nearly a mile, pointing evidently to the town of Aldborough ?

Thus decisively is Ilkley evinced to have been a station of the Romans. And the stationary area may be ascertained with equal decisiveness. It is pointed out by the appellation of Castle-hill, by the nature of the site, and by the remains of the Roman vallum. The site is admirably defended by the Wharf in front and by two brooks at the sides. The Wharf glides along the northern front of it, a very narrow level of boggy ground ranges betwixt the river and that, and the area looks down upon both from a steep brow of twenty-five or thirty yards in height. The western brook has had half its waters diverted into another channel, must before have flowed a very lively current, and gave additional strength to a brow naturally steep and rising about twelve or fifteen yards above it. The eastern brook is remarkably brisk, and runs about twenty yards below the crest of the brow. And both of them discharge their waters into the Wharf a few yards below the station. The whole area was about a hundred yards by a hundred and sixty, the northern barrier (I suppose) ranging along the line of the present lane, and parallel with and about twenty yards to the north of the Roman road from Broughton to Aldborough. The whole extent of the area contained about four acres of ground, encompassing a building called The Castle, and including the church and its area. And the vallum of the station presents itself to the eye at the north-western angle, and is easily discovered under the turf along the whole compass of the brows, being the rough, sable flag-stones of the country cemented together with indissoluble mortar. The nature of the ground must originally have given denomination to the fortress. Being seated upon the level of an eminence, it naturally received the appellation of *Alicana* *Al-i-can* or the fortress upon the height ?

The

The town was constructed very near to the station and along the course of the road from Broughton, in Banks's Croft, Scafe-Croft, and some adjoining closes. There fragments of bricks remarkably red have been frequently dug up, and there the foundations of houses remain very visible at present. No new inscriptions have been lately discovered. But many old inscriptions have in all probability been buried within the walls of the present church. A stone appears actually built up in the south-eastern corner of the building, and exhibits an inscription once copied by Camden and by Horsey, but now absolutely illegible, upon the outer plane of it¹⁰. And on the northern side of the bell-tower within is a couple of stones, one of which was certainly a Roman altar, a patera appearing embossed upon the edge of the stone, and the other is charged with a woman wearing a large peaked bonnet on her head, and grasping a snake in either hand, which rise erect over each shoulder, and lift their head considerably above it¹¹.

¹⁰ B. I. ch. iv. sect. 1. and ch. v. sect. 1.—¹¹ Dr. Richardson in I. e. land's Itin. Hearne Vol. IX. p. 146. and Mr. Angier in Horsey p. 413. Mr. Horsey p. 373 has mistakenly carried this road south as far as the Roman road from Tadcaster to Manchester.—¹² Richard's seventh Iter, Rerigonium, Ad Alpes Peninos, Alicana, Isuriuna. And see B. I. ch. vi. sect. 2.—¹³ See Camden p. 567.—¹⁴ Camden p. 568.—¹⁵ Richard p. 27. And in Montfaucon's Antiquite Expliquee tom. II. p. 419. is an Alpine Inscription to Jupiter by the title of Deo Pennino Optimo Maximo.—¹⁶ So Pendleton and Pendlebury near Manchester are written in all our old records Pen-hull-ton and Pen-hull-bury. So Pendleton near Clitheroe is called Penhulton in an antient record of Dugdale's Baronage, Vol. I. p. 789. And another eminence not far from Penigant and in Wenley-dale is also called Pen-hill.—¹⁷ See also Gale p. 17. Horsey p. 373. and Richard's seventh Iter for this road.—¹⁸ Al. for Ar, Upon: See Baxter in Ibelnium and Lhuyd in p. 34. Hence Alicana and Ariconium are the same in import. The specified distances in the seventh Iter from Rerigonium to

Ad

Ad Alpes Peninos and to Alicana are certainly corrupted. Only eighteen horizontal Roman miles or about twenty-one English road miles are given us betwixt Ribchester and Ilkley, when the real distance by Colne or by Broughton must measure nearly forty.—¹⁰ See Camden p. 568, and Horsley in Yorkshire Inscriptions, Ilkley. — "It is surprizing that these monuments escaped the notice of Camden, who particularly examined the inside of the church for Roman remains (p. 569). And at Brough in Derbyshire (see Appendix N^o. I. Iter 18) I saw a stone exhibiting a somewhat similar figure, a large rough stone having been discovered in a field a little distant from the Grit-stone-water, and then lying in one of the hedges, which in the bending hollow of one side exhibited the half-length of a woman crossing her hands upon her breast and wearing a large peaked bonnet on her head. But there were no snakes.

III

IT has never been supposed by the antiquarians that the Romans had a station at Buxton. That they had a bath is confessed by the criticks and demonstrated by the remains'. And assuredly they could not have had the one without the other. The one must assuredly have been erected by the garrison of the other. In these the wildest parts of the wildest region in England, covered as they must all have been by the impenetrable frith or forest that gave denomination to Chapel-a-Frith on one side of Buxton, the neighbourhood of a garrison only could have caused the medicinal virtues of these little springs to be even known to the Romans. In these the wildest parts of the wildest region in England, peopled as they must then have been by the beasts that gave denomination to the Wolf-hunters at Wormhill on another side of Buxton, the neighbourhood of a station only could have caused these waters, after they were known, to be collected into a reservoir and to be covered with a building.

The

The Romans therefore had certainly a station at Buxton. And this is equally demonstrated by the concurrence of Roman roads at it. One proceeds to it from Manchester; another courses to it over the Moors from Brough; a third advances to it by Street in the vicinity of Goithead; and a fourth stretches towards it by Middle-street and Over-street in the road to Brassington. And the station must certainly have been contiguous to the Bath. The latter, as I shall soon evince, was close to St. Anne's Well and at the bottom of the hill. The former must therefore have been immediately above it and along the plane of the hill. And this site is naturally defended by a high steep slope upon two sides and the little Wye clamouring at the foot of it.

The Roman road from Brough is popularly denominated the Batham-Gate, appears a long straight streak of green upon the heath about four miles from Brough, and pushes by Smalldale-Fold to Buxton. The Roman road from Brassington runs long and broad over Brassington-Moor for several miles together, giving denomination to Over-street a little on this side of Hurdlow and to Middle-street a little beyond it. And the road from our own to this station commenced at the eastern extremity of the Castle-field and betwixt the roads of Kinderton and of Slack. Crossing the present highway, it entered the opposite fields, and slanted along them, not in a direct line for Stockport, but at first in a direction for Garret-lane, then in another for the Medlock, and afterwards in another for the Cornebrook. This was plainly the original course of the road, as the nature of the ground and the direction of the road in Longfist sufficiently shew.

Passing along the left hand of Gathemes-Field, and crossing the brook beyond it, the Roman road must have mounted the little eminence of Calley-Banks, and have continued upon the edge of it into Garret-lane. This was the course of a public road even within the present century; and therefore no appearances of the Roman construction can be expected along it. In Garret-lane, having obtained a proper line for the ford over the Medlock, the Roman road must have made a considerable angle, have winded along the gentle descent to Garret-Hall, have left
Garret-

Garret-Bridge immediately on the right, and have passed along the margin of the Medlock. But the curved channel of the river intersecting the course of the road, the latter must have crossed the former at the Old Ford, as this passage over the river is still denominated. And all this line of the road continues in some measure and for part of its course a public way to the present moment.

The Roman road must now have deserted the lane, have entered the left-hand fields, have reached the narrow channel of the Cornebrook and the course of the present road at the bridge, and have fallen into the commencing line of Longsight. The whole range of the present road to Stockport from the second mile-stone to the bank of the Mersey is popularly denominated High-street, and thereby sufficiently evinces itself to be Roman. And the first half-mile of it, being remarkably direct, has obtained the particular and significative appellation of Longsight. Thus, passing along the present highway, must the Roman road have crossed the ford over the Mersey at Stockport. This from the sharp steep, stop, or steep upon either side of it received the appellation of Stopford from the Saxons, and was about two hundred yards above the present bridge and about sixty below the conjunction of the Mersey and the Tame. And the road must have then mounted the brow of the Castle-hill to the level of the market-place, and have traversed the site of the town to Buxton.

The medicinal waters of this village must certainly have first occasioned the Romans to form a settlement at Buxton in general. The medicinal waters of the Hill must as certainly have first occasioned the Romans to fix their stationary residence upon this part of Buxton in particular. Thus the springs that bubbled hot at the foot of the Downs, and trickled in smoky currents along the level of the vale at Bath, attracted the Romans to the one, and settled a colony on the other. And had not such a reason influenced the Romans, they would neither have fixed a station upon a sloping hill and a single shallow brook at Buxton, nor have planted a colony within the morassy hollow of a close

dale and upon the margin of a muddy lethargic current at Bath.

The Romans of Britain carefully marked and collected for use the mineral-tinctured springs of the island, which had rilled on for ages, either utterly unnoticed by the Britons around them, or wasting their liquid treasures upon the solitary wastes of the country. And the Britons soon adopted the custom of their conquerors. They saw the Romans among them, in an habitual conformity to their native manners, often laving their bodies in baths: and they soon copied the idle refinement. They saw the Romans among them, in the injudicious luxury of their native climes, still more injudicious as it was beneath the chilling atmosphere of Britain, often laving their bodies in *Thermæ* or hot baths: and they imitated the enervating softness. The springs that steamed as they gushed from the mixing minerals of our British hills were collected together into basins, and the Roman and the Briton stewed equally amid the relaxing water. Hence we find the hot baths of Britain mentioned particularly by Boadicea, by Richard, by Ptolemy, and by Antoninus. Hence we see *ἡδύα Σίγμα* in Ptolemy, *Thermæ* in Richard, and *Aquæ Solis* both in Richard and Antoninus, to be all the characteristic appellations of our Bath in Somersetshire⁸. And hence we meet with *Aquæ* in Richard as the designation equally of Bath and of Wells⁹, and *Aquæ* in Ravennas as the title of a town which lies somewhere between Lindum or Lincoln upon the one side and Camulodulum or Slack upon the other, and which for the expressive particularity of the name is in all probability Buxton¹⁰.

These towns the Britons must have probably distinguished by the denomination of *Batham*. Chesters or the cities of washing. And these towns the Saxons certainly distinguished afterwards by their own kindred appellation of *Baths*. Thus the *Aquæ Solis* of the Romans, and our present Bath in Somersetshire is denominated *Batham-cestre* as early even as the sixth century¹¹. And hence the Roman road which traverses the Moors from the neighbouring Brough to Buxton¹² is popularly stiled *Batham-Gate*
among

among the Peakrids ; and even the village of Buxton is as popularly denominated the Bath among all the inferior orders of people in the adjoining counties.

The Roman Bath at Buxton was plainly discernible by its ruins a few years ago, and was contiguous to the stone-alcove that is now erected over St. Anne's Well. The dimensions of it were then traceable by the eyes, and the wall of it was covered with a red coat of Roman cement hard as brick and exactly resembling tile". This must have been fed by the springs which now feed the great bagnio immediately above, and the overflowings of which supply the lesser bagnio for the poor below. And this, like the former, must have been of a blood-warm heat; and must therefore have been more congenial to the warmth and more friendly to the health of the human frame, in the general and constant use of it among the Romans, than the boiling waters of the sun at Bath.

There appear to have been two nations in Britain distinguished by the one denomination of Uiccii, Uices, or Vices. The name of Ic, Uic, or Vic signifies a brave people". This therefore was naturally a popular name among the military nations of the Celtae. Thus we find the Aulerici Eburo-Vices, the Aulerici Branno-Vices, and the Lemo-Vices, in Gaul. And thus we find the Huiccii or Vices and the Ord-Uices or Ordo-Vices in Britain".

The Huiccii of Bede are undoubtedly the Jugantes of Tacitus, the appellation of the tribe being Huicc-ii, Guicc-ii, or Jugant-es". These certainly inhabited the whole extent of Worcestershire", and most probably possessed the whole of Warwickshire and the north of Gloucestershire. And Brannogenium or Worcester appears from its name to have been their capital. The name is compounded of the two words, Bran or Bren and Genion or Cenion ; the latter of which, as I have already shewn in our own Mancenion, signifies simply a fortress or town ; and the former of which, as must necessarily be the case with a town that is constructed in a valley like Worcester, can import only the principal city".

The Ordovices were undoubtedly distinct from the Jugantes, and are actually distinguished from them by Tacitus²⁰. The Ordovices were settled at first perhaps immediately to the north of the Jugantes, inhabited only the county of Shrewsbury, and acknowledged Uriconium, Y Ricon Caer, the City of Kings, for their capital. The Ordovices certainly possessed the county of Shrewsbury, the town of Mediolanum, Med Lan, or Fair Fortrefs in the North of it being particularly ascribed to that nation by Ptolemy and by Richard²¹. And the Ordovices certainly extended their dominions afterwards over all the mountains of North-Wales upon one side, and assuredly carried them over all the woods of Staffordshire on the other, and over all the plains of East-Cheshire to the north of the latter. These plains were certainly not inhabited at first by the Carnabii, that tribe, as I have already evinced, being originally planted upon the banks of the Dee and along the western side of the county. And all these extended regions of North-Wales Staffordshire and East-Cheshire were in all probability first peopled at this period; the spreading numbers of the Ordovices ranging gradually into these solitary countries, and edging closely to the south and east upon the Carnabii of West-Cheshire.

Having thus enlarged their possessions over all the uninhabited districts around them, and their numbers perhaps increasing, the irruptions of war would commence as the range of population was confined. The Ordovices appear astonishingly to have attacked the neighbouring Huiotii on the south, to have seized their capital, and to have subdued their country²². And being thus masters of North-Wales Shropshire Staffordshire and East-Cheshire, and becoming afterwards the conquerors of Worcestershire Warwickshire and North-Gloucestershire, probably at the former period, more probably at the latter, they assumed or received the distinguishing appellation of Ord-wices or Ordovices, the Great Vices, or the Honourable Vices.

Such was the wide-extended empire of the Ordovices. But such it did not long remain. The Deboni assailed it on the south, and cut off from it the north of Gloucestershire the south-

south-west of Warwickshire and the whole of Worcestershire ". The Carnabii attacked it on the north and west, and reduced all Shropshire, all Staffordshire, nearly all Warwickshire, the little detached district of Flintshire, and the east of Cheshire ". And the Silures marched into the center of their dominions, subdued their remaining possessions in North-Wales, and put a final period to their empire ".

These were the British inhabitants of East-Cheshire. But the British inhabitants of Derbyshire were the Icenii, who under the conduct of their injured princess cut seventy thousand of the Romans and Romanized Britons to pieces, and destroyed their three towns of Verulam Colchester and London ". These consisted of two distinct tribes ". One of them was the Proper Icenii, and is denominated Icenii by Antoninus, Cenimagni by Cæsar, Cenomones by Ravennas, and both Cenomanni and Cenimanni by Richard ". The genuine and proper name therefore must have been Cen-i, Y-cen-i, or Cen-om-es; and the appellations of Cenimagni, Cenimanni, or Cenomanni must have been merely accidental and relative ". But both denominations were undoubtedly coeval with the first settlements of the tribe in Britain. And both were undoubtedly derived together with the first settlers of it from the Cenomanni of Gaul ".

Several nations of the primitive Britons appear to have retained the names of the states of which they were originally members, and from which they originally migrated, in colonies to Britain. Such were the Hædri of Somersetshire, descended from the Hædri of Gaul, and subdued by the Belgæ of Hampshire. Such were the Bibroces or Rhoeti, who were evidently a tribe of the native inhabitants, because they attacked and subdued (as I have shewed before *) the Belgæ Regni of the south. Such were the Atrebrates, who were as evidently a nation of the genuine Britons, because they actually lay to the north of the Bibroces ". Such also were the Ancolites, descended from the Caletes of Gaul, and clearly the ancient natives of the island, having both the Atrebrates and the Bibroces to the south of them ". And such were undoubtedly the Icenii or Cenomanni, being

being certainly the aborigines of the country, as the Belgæ had certainly never penetrated so far into the island, as the Cassii, the great enemies of the Belgæ and the conquerors of the Belgic Trinovantes, lay immediately to the south of them, and as they themselves had under Boadicea destroyed the town of London, though it was no colony or municipium like Verulam or Colchester, and consequently was not, like them, inhabited by the Romans, inhabited as it certainly was by the Belgic Trinovantes in particular, and frequented as it certainly was by many of the Belgic traders in general."

The other nation of the Iceni is called Coritani by Ptolemy, Corii by Ravennas, and Corii and Coitanni by Richard". The Itineraries of Richard and Ptolemy mention a city belonging to this people and call it Ratis-Corion, exhibiting the name Corii in the possessive case plural, and writing it with the Greek termination Κορίων. And some other similar terminations occur in Antoninus and in both; Ptorotone and Cantiopolis in Richard, Catarractoni and Glebon in Richard and Antoninus, and an infinite variety in Ravennas". The name of this nation therefore appears plainly to have been Corii, Coritani, and Coitanni. The last appellation of them, which literally signifies The Woodlanders, is evidently derived from the Coit-en or woods which more particularly covered the surface of their country". And the two others are clearly derived from that one remarkable circumstance in their condition of which the extreme woodiness of their country is a sufficient argument, the fewness of their numbers and the insignificance of their kingdom. The Corii mean the Little People", and Cori-tan imports the country of the Corii. Their large dominions being very nearly one extensive forest, the people must have been certainly few and the state must have been certainly insignificant.

Thus denominated, they were originally distinct from the Iceni and independent of them". They were subject only to their own metropolis and were governed only by their own monarch. Their metropolis is denominated Ratæ in the Itinera of Richard Antoninus and Ravennas, Ragæ in all the copies nearly.

nearly of Ptolemy's Geography, and absolutely and only Ragæ in Richard's Roman description of Roman Britain". The real name therefore must be equally Rata and Ragæ, the former implying the town to be fixed upon the currents", and the latter importing it to be the capital of the kingdom. But, in the great weakness of the Coritanian state, the wide-dispersed inhabitants of the country must have been greatly exposed to the dangers of invasion, and have lain an easy prey to any enterprizing nation about them. Such very particularly were the Icenii upon their southern border. And these had accordingly invaded their kingdom and subdued it before the coming of the Romans, and had given the mixed expressive appellation of Icenii Coritani to the conquered inhabitants of it".

" Leigh's N. H. b. iii. p. 42. — " Camden p. 420. — " This road I travelled in the autumn of 1767. — " So Lean, Loan — Beald, Bold — Neaght, Nought — Eald, Old — and Sheaw, Show. — " See b. I. ch. vi. s. 2. — " Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. xxi. *Paulatimque discessum ad delinimenta vitiorum — Balnea —: idque apud imperitos humanitas vocabatur.* — " As early therefore as the year 61 the Romans used hot baths in Britain (Dio p. 1007). — " Iter 10th of Richard and 14th of Antoninus, and Richard p. 51. — " Iter 10th, 11th, and 12th. — " So the Roman town which was constructed at the hot wells of Provence in France was denominated Aquæ (Aquæ Sextiæ) by the Romans, and is now denominated Aix. And there were certainly some medicinal springs at Wells as well as at Aix, however those are unnoticed at present, as these actually were to the present century. — " Sax. Chron. p. 22. — " See Iter 18 in Appendix. — " Leigh's N. H. b. iii. p. 42. — " The Nat. Hist. of Lancashire &c. very gravely informs us b. iii. p. 42. That Buxton is mentioned by Lucan. And this wild assertion has been carefully copied from him by almost all the topographers since. — " Baxter in Icenii. — " Cæsar p. 172, Bede's Eccl. Hist. lib. ii. c. 2, Ptolemy, and Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. xviii. — " Ann. lib. xii. c. 40. — " Bede p. 765, 766, 767, and 769. — " Branogena in.

in Richard p. 24. is the same with Brannogenion, one having the Roman and the other the British plural. —⁵⁰ Ann. lib. xii. c. 40. and Agric. Vit. c. xviii. —⁵¹ Richard p. 22. —⁵² Ptolemy and Richard p. 22. in Brannogenium. —⁵³ Richard p. 24, Salinæ, Branogena, and Alauna. —⁵⁴ Richard p. 24, Etocetum, Banchorium, Uriconium, and Benonæ — and p. 26, Carnabiis vicini Coitanni. —⁵⁵ Richard p. 22. —⁵⁶ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 32 and 33. —⁵⁷ Richard p. 26. —⁵⁸ Antonine's Iter 9, Cæsar p. 92, and Richard p. 26. and 3d Iter. —⁵⁹ So Marco-manni in Cæsar &c. —⁶⁰ Cæsar p. 172. —⁶¹ B. I. ch. iii. f. 2. —⁶² Cæsar p. 172 &c. —⁶³ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 32 and 33. — See also b. I. ch. viii. f. 1. —⁶⁴ Richard Iter 14. and p. 26. — Coritavi stands for Coritani, as Bovium for Banchorium, Calleva for Wallen (or Walling-ford), and Cornoninorum in Ravennas for Cornaviorum. —⁶⁵ Richard Iter 4, 9, 10, 14, and 15, and Antoninus Iter 1 and 2. And Ravennas has a number of such words, Ravennatone, Melarnoni, Termonin, Omire, Ardaoneon, Cimetzone, Metambala, Macatonion, Utriconion, &c. See a mistake therefore in Mr. Pegge's Dissertation on the Coritani annexed to his Coins of Cunobeline p. 119. —⁶⁶ Richard p. 26. —⁶⁷ Baxter. —⁶⁸ Ptolemy. —⁶⁹ Richard Iter 14. and Antoninus Iter 6 and 8, and Richard p. 26 and 36. —⁷⁰ A little above the West-Bridge at Leicester, says Leland, the Sore casteth out an arm, and soon after it cometh in again and maketh one stream of Sore. Within this isle standeth Black Friars. And afterwards at the North-Bridge the Sore breaketh into two arms again, and insulateth a large meadow. And a little land-brook falleth into one of these latter arms. p. 14. vol. I. —⁷¹ Richard p. 26.

IV.

THERE is one more station which was immediately connected with Manchester. That is the present Warrington. The title of Warrington to the character of a Roman station is proved by the concurrence of three Roman roads at it, one from Condate, another

ther from Coccium, and a third from Mancunium. The approach of the the first to Warrington is clearly marked by the name of Stretton and Stretton-chapel betwixt the third and fourth measured mile from the town. The Mancunian road must have issued out of the road from Manchester to Blackrode about the termination of Hodge-lane, have passed by Eccles, and have ranged through Barton to Warrington. Within the compass even of the present century, Hodge-lane remained the one great road to Old Trafford and to Manchester from this quarter of the country. And near the bridge of Barton the Roman highway has consigned the appellation of the Streets or the Street-fields to four meadows that range successively along the northern margin of the Irwell, at once the memorial of its existence and the indication of its course. The last must have certainly commenced from the station at Blackrode, as the Romans had certainly a station at it, and as it was about the stationary distance of eighteen Roman miles from Warrington, and must have coursed, I suppose, by Strangeways in the township of Hindley. And just beyond the village of Ashton and close to the hall of Haydock, on a slight deviation of the present road to the right, it very plainly appears. Entering the paddock at a large ash, it continues along it about six hundred yards, and then regains the rectified line of the present road. Running about three hundred yards along the edge of the paddock, it crosses the back-avenue to the house, and is levelled to admit the plane of it. About three hundred yards of the road are very perfect, and an hundred and fifty in the middle almost as perfect as they were originally. For these hundred and fifty yards the road is still very fairly rounded, and has a sharp slope of nine or ten yards on either side from the crown to the borders.

All these roads must have met at the old ford over the Mersey. There the northern and southern road always met, and there was always the way into the town from Cheshire, even to the days of our Seventh Henry and the erection of the present bridge. And the above-mentioned Stretton, which points out the course of the southern road near Warrington, lies di-

rectly in the line betwixt the old ford and the angle that the road now forms in order to reach the bridge. Here therefore, just upon the ford of the Mersey, was a Roman station, though equally overlooked by antiquarians and forgotten by tradition.

The ford was at the extremity of some flat pastures, and led directly into a village which from it is denominated Latchford. It was formed by a shoal of gravel upon a bed of marl, was about thirty yards in width, and had frequently in a dry summer not more than two feet of water upon it. And the road of access to it was by the lane at the angle of Church-street, across the level fields which are called the Broad-howley or Low-grounds, and along the margin of the river. Just at this ford the wildly varying hand of nature had planted one of the most remarkable sites for a fortress that imagination can conceive. Immediately below the present dam of the river, the current proceeding hastily to the south-west was suddenly diverted to the east, but, soon afterwards turning to the south, was soon compelled to flow directly over the old ford to the west; thus concluding the beautiful curve within a few yards from its commencement. And within the compass of this curve, I apprehend, must have been the station of the Romans. This its vicinity to the river, this its position upon the ford, this the remarkable defensibility of its site, all concur to evince. And this the nature of the ground contiguous sufficiently demonstrates of itself, as the curve is absolutely the only defensible ground that is at all in the neighbourhood of the river and the ford.

Upon a stream whose largeness has made it frequently the boundary of kingdoms, and whose rapidity and deepness must ever have made it formidable to passing armies, this ford, the only certain passage over the river from the mouth of its channel to the shallow at Thirlwall, must necessarily have been a post of considerable importance in war. And upon a bank which from the lowness of its level surface could afford no convenient position at all for a fortress, such a site, marked out by the plainest characters for the area of a fortress and placed directly upon one end of the ford, must as necessarily have been of equal importance

in war. So must the Sifuntii have thought, when, on the irruption of the Camabii into the provinces of their southern neighbours, they resolved to provide for their own security by the fortification of their southern border. In this prudent resolution surveying the banks of their liminary stream, and the ford at Warrington necessarily attracting their immediate attention, they must have eagerly seized this remarkable peninsula, and have instantly settled a sufficient garrison within it. The extent of it was such as the Sifuntii fortified at Manchester, being, like that, about twelve statute-acres in compass. The isthmus in its narrowest point was only about ten yards in width at the height of the tide and about twenty at its recess, and would be easily secured by a rampart and a ditch. And a rampart of seven or eight feet in height, entered as the station at Manchester appears to have been entered, not by openings in the line of the vallum, but by sloping ascents to the crest of it, would prevent all those accidental overflowings of the land-floods to which the ground must have been previously subject, and by which it is now generally covered once or twice in a winter.

When the Romans began to secure their new conquests in Lancashire by the construction of several stations, the same reasons which had previously induced the Britons to select would equally induce the Romans to retain this little peninsula of sand for the area of a regular fortress. The extent of it indeed was larger than what they generally chose for the compass of a station. But such a choice was merely founded upon a principle of military economy, and was merely calculated to prevent a greater detail of expences by precluding the necessity of more numerous defendants. And the necessary number of defendants could never have been larger for this station than for the *Castrum* at Manchester, as in this the soldiers needed to defend only the breadth of thirty yards at the ford and the width of twenty at the isthmus. The river was a sufficient defence on every other side, carrying in all parts a depth of three or four yards, and having probably those deep holes in some which have long given to the whole site the popular denomination of Hell-holes.

holes. And the Roman road from Coccium to Condate, passing along the narrow isthmus and approaching the western rampart, must have gently curved on the right by the south-western angle of the latter, and have edged along the southern side of the station and just beneath the southern vallum. The passage of the river could never have been attempted but during the absence of the tide; and during that absence this road must have been safely travelled, extending along the lower bank of the river, and leading over the ford to the high grounds of Latchford.

Such was the site on which the antient *Castrum* of the Romans and the more antient town of the Britons were constructed. But so it is not now. The greatest strength of the isthmus, and the point most directly opposed to the current, was about thirty yards in breadth. So broad it was, after it had been for ages silently corroded and violently plundered by the wasting waters. And about thirty-five years ago the river bringing down an extraordinary body of waters from its native hills, and discharging the fury of it directly against the opposing isthmus, the whole strong substance of the mound began to shake, soon opened, and instantly disappeared. The Mersey, having now obtained a direct way, immediately deserted the rounding course of its current, and transferred the site of the fortress from the northern to the southern bank; leaving its old important ford to become merely a sludgy way into a pasture, and giving up its old important channel to be partitioned by an hedge and to be grazed upon by cattle.

This station is undoubtedly the same which *Ravennas* fixes somewhere near *Chester*, and to which he gives the name of *Voratinum* *Vara-tin* or the *Ford-town*. The certainty of a station at *Warrington*, and the great similarity in the name of *Voratinum* to it, form together a sufficient evidence that the former is meant by the latter. And in the popular pronunciation of the former name the similarity is still greater, *Warrington* being popularly pronounced *Warratin* to the present moment. And though in the records of *Domesday* it is written *Wallington*, it is

is so written from the same customary substitution of an L for an R in the language of our Saxon ancestors, from which the name of the Wiltshire Amblesbury is changed in the same records into Amblesbury, and from which the appellation of Sarum, the Searobyrig of the Saxon chronicle, has been long altered into Salisbury.

At the distance of a few miles from this station, but on the southern bank of the Mersey, were formerly discovered more than twenty oblong pieces of lead, some of which were said to be inscribed IMP. VESP. VI. T. IMP. V. and others IMP. DOMIT. COSS.

AVG. GER. DE. The discovery is sufficiently authentic-CEANG.

cated, and the inscriptions are interestingly curious. These pieces of lead the venerable father of our British antiquarians has considered as the memorial of some victory which the Romans obtained over the Ceangi or the inhabitants of the north-western region of Cheshire. And this is certainly the light in which the first obvious reflection presents them to the mind. But the late antiquarian of Gresham College has questioned the justness of Mr. Camden's opinion, and has advanced a very different one of his own. He considers them merely as common pieces of lead, licensed only for the market by an inscription of the name of the reigning emperor, and secured to the proprietor by another inscription of the name of his nation, and thrown by an accidental wreck upon the shore of Cheshire. And to this his account of them Dr. Stukeley has given the sanction of his own commendation. But the account is assuredly wrong, and will appear to be so from this one argument only.

The Cheshire are not the only pieces of lead which have been discovered of a similar form and with a similar inscription. In the reign of our eighth Henry an oblong plate of the same metal was thrown up by the plough near Ochoyhole in Somersetshire; bearing this inscription, TI. CLAUDIVS QÆSAR AVG. P. M. TRIB. P. VIII. IMP. XVI. DE. BRITAN. In

¹ Leland in his *Antic. Archaeol.* p. 23. edit. 1544. gives it as thus, TI. CLAUD. QÆSAR AVG. P. M. TR. P. VIII. IMP. XVI. DE BRITANNIS. But see Camden p. 168.

the present century another was discovered at Bruton within the same county, having this inscription, IMP. DVOR. AVG. ANTONINI ET VERI ARMENIACORVM'. And a third was dug up about thirty-six years ago in Yorkshire, exhibiting these words, IMP. CAES. DOMITIAN. AVG. COS. VII. OF
BRIG.

these the first was certainly a trophy. This the words DE BRITANNIS would sufficiently assure us of themselves. This the remarkable impression upon a particular coin undeniably evinces. The words are too general for the purposes of Dr. Ward's supposition. And the coin exhibits exactly the same inscription, together with a triumphal arch, the figure of an horseman at full speed, and two trophies'. This piece of lead therefore was erected as a military trophy, and the inscription upon it DE BRITANNIS as the memorial of a victory which the Romans gained over the Hædri, the Britons of these parts of Somersetshire. And such the Gresham Professor with an ingenuous inconsistency acknowledges them to be". Such therefore must also be the Cheshire pieces of lead, and such the inscription DE CEANGIS upon them. This every principle of analogy proclaims them to be. Molded exactly in the same sort of figure, and presenting exactly the same sort of inscription, they must both have been formed with the same design and inscribed for the same end.

The equally oblong piece of lead which was discovered in the more southerly region of Somersetshire must have been equally erected as the record of a victory over the inhabitants of it. This the same principles of analogy assert. And this the Professor again inconsistently acknowledges". In the joint reign of Aurelius Antoninus and L. Verus an insurrection of the Hædri had been suppressed by the Romans. And this monument was erected in memory of the suppression. Such therefore must have been also the case with the Brigantes. Subdued by Cerealis in the year 72 or 73, they must have attempted to throw off the yoke in the seventh consulate of Domitian or the year 81, " but attempted in vain. The Romans reduced the insurgents, and erected the usual monument of their victories, the leaden plate
and

and the triumphal inscription". The inscription naturally varied in its manner, and the plate in its weight; the name of the conquered nation being sometimes expressly inscribed upon the plate, as in the two first and in the last; and being sometimes explained only by the place of its erection, as in the third; and the weight being sometimes one hundred pounds, as in the last; sometimes only fifty, as in the third; and sometimes much less, as in both the first probably.

The Cheshire pieces of lead then were originally designed by the Romans as a monument of triumph and the record of a victory over the Ceangi. And this design of them ascertains at once the position of these Ceangi. Being the servants of the Carnabii and the attendants upon their cattle, they lived in the northern borders of their country, and in the marshy grounds particularly which still extend for many miles by Norton Runcorne and Frodsham along the shore of the Mersey. In these grounds were the pieces dug up, and in them must the victory have been obtained. And the Ceangi over whom it was gained were very distinct from the three tribes with whom they have been often confounded; from the Cangii, who bordered immediately upon the country of the Iceni, and who must therefore have inhabited the wild extent of Cannock Forest in Staffordshire; from the Gangani, whose habitations stretched along the western shore of Caernarvonshire; and from the Cangi, who dwelt amid the southern hills of Westmoreland. Separated from the first by the interposing Carnabii, and from the second by the intervening Carnabii and Ordovices together, they were equally separated from the last by the whole intermediate region of the Sifuntii.

But the dates of these inscriptions are obviously different; the one referring to a victory in the reign of Vespasian and in the year 76 particularly, and the other to a victory in the reign of Domitian. The former inscription, like the inscriptions of North-Somersetshire, refers without question to the original conquest of the country; and the latter, like the inscriptions of South-Somersetshire and Yorkshire, to the suppression of a subsequent

sequent insurrection. But the former has been so negligently copied by the persons who transmitted it to Camden, that it cannot be depended upon at all with regard to the year of its date. This appears at once from the glaring absurdity of it in giving the appellation of Emperor to Vespasian and to Titus in the same inscription". And this equally appears from the consideration of this certain fact, That in the year 76 the Ceangi of Cheshire had not yet been attacked by the Romans at all. In the summer of 78, when Agricola assumed the command of the troops within the island, the whole range of our north-western coast, including North-Wales and extending to Scotland, was yet unsubdued by the Roman arms. The most southerly of these Britons, the Ordovices of North-Wales, had been previously attacked by Suetonius Paulinus; but all the more northerly Britons were first attacked by Agricola. Having totally reduced the former in the autumn of 78, Agricola equally reduced the latter in the summer of 79. This therefore is the highest date to which any Cheshire inscription can possibly refer, as the county was first attacked and first conquered in this year. And this is also the lowest to which any inscription concerning Vespasian can be possibly reduced, as he died upon the twenty-fourth of June in this year. And to this the original inscription must have actually referred, and must have been thus written, IMP. VESP. VIII. T. VESP. VII. COSS.

Early then in the campaign of 79, when Agricola led his troops to the conquest of Lancashire, the main body appears to have advanced by the way of Warrington". The inhabitants of the north-western region of Cheshire, the hardy Ceangi or herdsmen of the Carnabii, were secure in the protection of their marshes, and had not yet submitted to the Roman arms. But Agricola pursued them to the last retreat of their marshes and the banks of the Mersey, there attacked and defeated them near Norton, and subdued the whole country.

This being successfully performed, the army must have naturally forded the Mersey at the shallow near Warrington, have entered the country of the Sfantii, and have taken the British fortress

fortress of Veratinum. This was intended to guard the ford, and must have been then skirted on every side by the great wood that was afterwards denominated the Forest of Derbyshire¹⁹. And the detachment which had been probably sent over the Mersey at Stretford, and had taken the fortress of Mancunium, must as probably have continued its route directly to Ribchester and Overborough, have seized the fortresses of Rerigonium and Bremetonacæ, and have re-united with the army in the county of Cumberland.

In each of these fortresses the detachments, acting undoubtedly upon the same principles with the main body, must have successively left a competent garrison. On each of these fortresses must Agricola at the end of the campaign have constructed a regular station and have fixed a regular garrison. This must have been the case of Bremetonacæ and Veratinum in particular, though the one is first mentioned by the late Itinerary of Antoninus and the other by the later Chorography of Ravennas. Both of them appear from their British names to have been originally British fortresses, and neither of them could have retained those names if they had not immediately been converted into Roman stations. Veratinum was not upon the course of the great road from Carlisle to the south, and is therefore unnoticed in the earlier Itineraries. The road, passing from Carlisle to Blackrode, did not proceed from Blackrode to Kinderton in a straight direction and the line of the present road, but, turning to the left, rounded by Manchester to it. And such appears to have been its direction for two centuries afterwards from the Itinerary of Antoninus.

But in the fourth century, some time after the date of Antonine's and before the period of Ravennas's Itinerary, the course of the road was changed. As it circled by Manchester, the distance between Blackrode and Kinderton was about forty measured miles. But if the one was laid directly through Warrington, the other could be only about thirty. The course of the great road was therefore diverted from Manchester to Warrington.

And we have several instances of the like diversions among the Romans, new roads constructed by the Romans of the later ages because the old took a considerable round²⁰. In consequence of our own particularly, the station of Veratinum, which before perhaps had only two vicinal ways to it, and had a connection by them with Mancunium and Deva only, was placed upon the course of a great road, was necessarily inserted in the later Itineraries, and necessarily engaged the notice of the transcribing Chorographer. And the present appearance of the Roman road at Haydock confirms the opinion. Constructed entirely with the red earth and the red rock which form the natural soil, it still retains all the great convexity which was originally given it, and must therefore have been constructed by the Romans of the later ages, and have been speedily deserted in this particular part of it by the Britons or Saxons after them. And the direction of our great north-western road was now first diverted from Manchester, by which it had hitherto gone, and was now first carried through Warrington, through which it continues to go to the present moment. At the same period undoubtedly the other part of the road, which had previously curved from Condate by Mediolanum and by Uriconium to Wall near Litchfield²¹, was laid directly as it now tends over the hills of Talk and Newcastle and by the stations of Chesterton and Berry-Bank. Chesterton is about two miles to the north of Newcastle, and Berry-Bank is about one mile to the south of Stone. The former is sufficiently characterized as a station by its common name, and the latter by the name of Wulfere-cester which it bears in a very antient record. And the latter is additionally marked by a camp upon a lofty hill, extending about two hundred yards in diameter, secured by a double vallum, and fortified with deep entrenchments²².

²⁰ So our own Strangeways was named from the Roman road that went by it. — ²¹ See Gale's Antoninus. p. 123, where he justly asserts the British Vara to be the present Ferry; and

Lilhyd's

Liluyd's Etymol. Dict. p. 5. Bamborough in Northumberland was called *Din-Guayrh* or the War-town by the Britons of the sixth century (Nonnius c. 64).—¹ Thus we have Loch or Roch water, and Bullium or Barriun for the same town, among the Britons (see *Dictionnaire Celtique* in Roch, and Richard and Antoninus for the town); *Celia* and *Ceria* for the same liquor among the Spaniards (see b. I. ch. vii. f. 3.); *Asopos* *Lilium*, and *Asop* *Stella*, and *Cerebrum* *Cerebellum*, *Liber* *Libellus*, and many others, among the Romans; and Marmor Marble, Purpura Purple, Tempora Temples, and Harry Mary Sarah and Dorothy popularly softened into Hal Molly Sally and Dolly, among ourselves. — ² P. 463. — ³ Phil. Transf. A. D. 1755 and 1756. p. 696 and 697. — ⁴ Carausius vol. I. p. 177. — ⁵ Itin. Curios. p. 143. — ⁶ Phil. Transf. p. 687. — ⁷ Camden ibid. — ⁸ P. 699. — ⁹ P. 698. — ¹⁰ See Phil. Transf. p. 695. — ¹¹ And this insurrection is obviously alluded to in Juv. 14 Sat.

Dirue Maurorum ategias & castra Brigantum.

—¹² That the Romans frequently made inscriptions upon leaden plates, appears from Dion. p. 475 and 867. — ¹³ Tacitus Ann. l. xii. c. 32. — ¹⁴ See the mistakes in Brit. Romana p. 34, Carausius p. 177. vol. I, and Reinesius p. 302. — ¹⁵ Mr. Horsey p. 316. has proposed this objection, but has mistated it. His argument supposes both sets of inscriptions to be upon plates of the same date. And Dr. Ward has endeavoured to remove the objection, but has mistaken it (p. 697 and 698). The title of Emperor is neither given to Vespasian Titus and Domitian on the same pieces of lead, nor given to Vespasian upon one piece and to Titus upon another. It is given to Vespasian and to Titus upon the same, and to Domitian upon different pieces. —

¹⁶ *Loca castris ipse [Agricola] capere, æstuaria ac sylvas ipse prætentare: nihil interim apud hostes quietum pati quod minus subitis excursibus popularetur; Tacitus Vit. Agric. —* ¹⁷ A record of perambulation says thus of it — It begins where Sonkey Water falls into the Mersey—ascends the water through the middle of the townships of Par Windlue and Rainford—passes through

the middle of Bickerstath to Crowshagh Brook—goes to Rómesbrook in Aghton, to Cockbeck, to Alt—goes beyond the Moss of Downholland to Barton Pull—ranges beyond the Moss in Hanglowe to the sea—follows the line of the sea to Liverpool—and pursues the line of the Mersey to Sankey Water—9 H. III. Kuerden folio p. 238.—" Galen l. ix. c. 8. Methodi for Italy, and Horfeley p. 144, for Britain.—" Richard's 1st and 2d and Antonine's 2d Iter.—" Plot's Staffordshire p. 407 and Leland's Collectanea vol. I. p. 1.

CHAP. VI.

THESE are the Roman roads that coursed from Mancunium to the neighbouring stations. . And such as they are, they must share in the great admiration and the high praise which the antiquarians have bestowed upon the roads of the Romans in general. But surely those criticks have been too lavish in their eulogiums upon them. Antiquarianism is the younger sister of History, less sedate and more fanciful, and apt to become enamoured of the face of Time by looking so frequently upon it. But let not this be the conduct of her soberer disciples. Let not the sensible antiquarian disgrace himself and his profession by admiring greatly what is merely antient, and by applauding fondly what is only Roman. The pencil of Age may justly be allowed to throw a shade of respectableness, and to diffuse even an air of venerableness, over the productions of very aptient Art. And we may appeal to the native feelings of every sensible beholder for the truth of the observation. But this is all that can be allowed to the mere influence of Time. And the antiquarian that once oversteps this reasonable limit sacrifices the dignity of sentiment to the dreams of antiquarianism, and gives up the realities of History for the fables of Imagination.

The great excellence of the Roman roads is the particular directness of their course. Being constructed at a period when the laws of property were superseded by the rights of conquest, they were naturally laid in the straightest lines from place to place. From this line of direction they could not be diverted, like many of our modern roads, and thrown into obliquities and angles, by the bias of private interest. From this line nothing could divert them but the interposition of an hill which could not be directly ascended,

ascended, the interruption of a river which could not be directly forded, or the intervention of a moor which could not be crossed at all. Thus, to adduce only a single instance, the Roman road to Slack courses in one uninterrupted right line from the Castlefield to the Hollinwood, while the modern and nearly parallel way to Huthersfield, one of the directest roads that we have in the vicinity of the town, runs curving all the way at a little distance from it, and has no less than twelve or thirteen considerable angles betwixt the end of Newton-lane and the extremity of Hollinwood.

But the Roman roads appear not to have been constructed upon the most sensible principles in general. The road over Newton Heath is a mere coat of sand and gravel, the sand being very copious and the gravel very weak, and not compacted together with any incorporated cement. And the road at Haydock is merely an heap of loose earth and loose rock laid together in a beautiful convexity, but ready to yield and open upon any sharp compression from the surface. Such roads could never have been designed for the passage of the cart and the waggon. Had they been so designed, they must soon have been furrowed to the bottom by the cutting of the wheels or crushed into the ground by the pressure of the load, and have been rendered absolutely impassable by either. But for such rough services they were not intended at all. This the sharp convexity of the road at Haydock most clearly demonstrates, which scarcely leaves the level of a yard at the crown, and throws all the rest of the surface into a brisk descent. And this the breadth of the more flattened road over Failsworth Moor concurs to demonstrate, the surface, even now when it has naturally spread out into a broader extent, being not more than three yards and a half in width. Both these roads, though the one was intended for the great western way into the north and the other was the way of communication betwixt Chester and York, must plainly have been confined to the mere walker, the mere rider, and the mere beast of burden.

The

The only roads that seem to have been constructed for the cart and the waggon are such as were regularly paved with large boulders. Such appears to have been the road from Manchester to Blackrode; such appears to have been the road from Manchester to Ribchester; and such evidently was the road from Ribchester to Overborough². But as this alleviates not at all the censure upon the narrowness of the ways, so the paving of a road is obviously a very awkward expedient at the best. This may sufficiently appear from those boasted remains of the Roman roads, the Appian and the Flaminian ways in Italy, which are so intolerably rough and so inexpressibly hard, that the travellers, as often as they can, turn off from them, and journey along the tracks at their borders³.

Many of the Roman roads indeed have continued under all the injuries of time and all the inclemencies of climate to the present period, and some few in excellent conservation. The Romans, having the whole power of the country at their command and nations of subjects to be their labourers in the work, were not frugal of toil in the discovery of the materials and in the conveyance of them to a considerable distance. Thus, since little or no gravel was to be found along the course of the Roman road from the common of Hollinwood to the end of Street-lane, they dug up a very great quantity of it along the sides of the present Millbrook upon the former, as the long broad and winding hollow which still remains doth manifestly evince, and constructed all the road from the one to the other with it, as the peculiar redness of the gravel along the road does evidently prove. Thus, what is much more remarkable, the Stane-street in Suffex, ten and seven yards in breadth and one yard and a half in depth, is composed entirely of flints and of pebbles, though no flints are to be found even within seven miles of the road⁴. And they laid their roads, not sunk, like ours, many feet below the level of the ground about them, but rising with a rounded ridge considerably above the surface, unless they were obliged to climb obliquely up the side of a steep hill or to descend obliquely down it. By this means the water never settled upon

their roads, silently sapped the foundations, and effectually demodified the works. But the continuance of many roads to the present moment, and the peculiar conservation of some, result very little from these general circumstances, and are principally the effect of particular accidents. That these circumstances have not given the roads such a lasting duration, is evident from the above-mentioned structure of all of them within, and more evident from the particular roundness of some of them without. The fact arises chiefly from the early desertion of particular roads by the Britons and Saxons, new roads being laid for new reasons to the same towns, or the towns being destroyed and the roads unfrequented. Such must assuredly have been the case with the smartly rounded road at Haydock. And such will hereafter appear to have been the case with the still-remaining road upon Stony Knolls.

But had the Roman roads been always laid in right lines, always constructed with a sufficient breadth, and been never paved with stone; had the materials been bound together by some incorporated cement; and had they been all calculated to receive carts and to bear waggons; they must still have been acknowledged to have one essential defect in them. The roads almost constantly crossed the rivers of the island, not at bridges, but at shallows or fords, some of which Nature had planted and others Art supplied. By this means the travelling on the roads must have been infinitely precarious, have been regulated by the rains, and have been controuled by the floods. Such must have certainly been the consequence at the fords of Ribchester and Penwortham over the Ribble, such more particularly at the fords of Warrington, Stretford and Stockport over the Mersey, and such even at the fords of Knotmill and Garret over the Medlock, at the way of Trafford over the Irwell, and at the passages of Huntsbank over the Irke and of Throfflenest-lane over the Cornebrooke. One of those very rainy nights which are so common in our Lancashire winters would raise a considerable depth of water upon the fords, and would fix an absolute bar to the progress of travelling. Thus, for want of a few bridges, the

the Roman roads must have been often rendered impassable during the winter, and often for a considerable part of the winter together. And thus, for want of a few bridges, must the Roman roads have been rendered frequently useless, the military communication between the several parts of the island have been frequently suspended, and the Roman empire within it have been frequently exposed to danger ?

From some Tumuli in the roads Dr. Stukeley infers both the Herman and the Watling Streets to have been never travelled even by horses. *Itin. Curios.* p. 82, 104, and 106.—^{*} Rothmell's Account of Overborough.—^{*} Horace lib. i. sat. 5. shews the Ap-
pian way to have been as rough in the Augustan age as it is in the present :

Hoc iter ignavi divisimus, altiùs ac nos

^{*} Præcinctis unum; minùs, est gravis Appia tardis.

—⁺ Camden c. 199. —^{*} See b. II. ch. ii. f. 2. —⁶ The Romans had very few stations in the island at which they had constructed bridges. Only two are mentioned by Antoninus, Ad Pontem and Pontibus. And a third is mentioned by the Notitia, Pons Ælii.—⁷ Dr. Stukeley, in the genuine spirit of an antiquarian, commends the wisdom of the Romans for preferring durable fords to perishing bridges. *Itin. Cur.* p. 72. See also a similarly awkward expedient for crossing the rills of vallies mentioned v. 82.

II.

TO the seven stations with which Mancunium was immediately connected we may add several others, not as the great and terminating stages of other roads, but as intermediate castra upon these or minute stations at a distance from them. And the station of Mancunium appears to have had nine of them, three of them constructed with one view, two with another, and four with another.

The fortress of Mancunium appears to have had three castra in its neighbourhood, and all upon the three roads from it to Ilkley to Buxton and to Slack. One of these was at Littleborough, the second at Castleshaw, and the third at Hanford. The little station at Castleshaw is very evident on the present track of the road to Slack; a second station was certainly planted at Hanford; and these necessarily lead us to expect another upon the other road, a fortress constructed upon a similar site and calculated for a similar purpose. Fact convinces us of the one, and analogy requires the other. The castrum at Castleshaw is seated directly at the foot of Stanedge, and within a couple of furlongs from the track of the Roman road. This I have evinced before to have been in all probability a previous fortress of the Sifuntii, but to have extended along all the large area which rises eminent over the rest of the ground, and which is all equally denominated The Hus-steads and is all equally defined by the Castle-hills. The later fortress seems to have been contracted into a much narrower compass, and to have been inclosed within the fosse that still plainly appears encircling a rounded eminence near the center and encompassing about three-fourths of a statute-acre. The castrum at Littleborough must have given denomination to the village, and seems to have been fixed upon the ground which is about half a mile to the east of it, which is immediately on the left of the new road, and which is popularly denominated Castle. This is directly under the steep of Blackstone-Edge, nearly adjoining to the course of the Roman road, and upon the margin of a brisk stream. And the fortification which gave name to the ground is of so antient a date, that both the remains of it have vanished from the eye and tradition has forgotten its existence. But we have better evidences of a little station at Hanford. The Roman road from Manchester to Buxton runs considerably to the west of its general direction from Stockport, in order to touch at some intermediate station. It proceeds by Pepper-street-Fold in Bramhall and it passes over Streetfields beyond it, pointing plainly towards Hanford-mill on the Bollen. And Hanford appears clearly to have had three or four roads of the Romans diverging

diverging from it. A Roman road must have crossed the present road to Macclesfield about half a mile to the north of Adlington-Hall, a long lane on the left still bearing its appellation of Street-lane, and in two or three miles must necessarily have coincided with the other about Hanford-mill. This is the continuation of the road from Manchester to Buxton, leaving the little station at Hanford, and bearing directly for Buxton. And two other roads must have reached it from two other quarters, having bequeathed their names of Street to a lane in Alderley for three quarters of a mile and to a lane in Cheadle for more than a mile together. But situated as all these three stations were in a line directly under the ridge of our eastern hills, they could never be constructed for the purposes of exploration. They could be constructed merely for two purposes, the subordinate one of securing the roads just entering the wild region of the hills; and the important one of being the necessary baiting-places for the soldiers just mounting the cliffs of the British Alps.

Six other stations were fixed in the more immediate precincts of Mancunium, and were constructed for the more immediate purposes of the garrison in it. They were designed to protect their cattle in the pastures, and to secure their convoys upon the roads. Such the Romans appear to have generally had in the neighbourhood of their stationary camps. Such therefore must be equally obvious in the precincts of other stations within the kingdom, though they have never been noticed by any of our antiquarians. One of these has been previously mentioned by a Mancunian antiquarian, and without hesitation pronounced to be merely a camp for the summer. But constructed as all of them are in the same manner, they can as little be all of them camps for the summer as any of them can be forts for exploration. They are all of them sufficiently distinguished from the latter by the height of their sites, too low to be the sites of exploratory forts. They are all of them sufficiently distinguished from the former by the extent of their areas, too small to be the areas of summer-camps. Evincing to be stations by the express mention of one of them in the Itinerary of Richard, by the appellation

pellation of Caster which is given to another of them in an ancient record, by the concurrence of several Roman roads at a third, and by the great uniformity in the aspect of all of them; they appear to have been six of those tumultuary forts, as Vegetius calls them, which the Romans generally made at a little distance from their stations and for the greater security of their cattle and their convoys'. And the Romans fixed them, as these are fixed, in the most advantageous sites that the places afforded, fortified them, as these are fortified, not with a rampart of stone or even of earth, but only with large ditches, and lodged a small garrison in them'.

One of these Chesters is mentioned by Richard in his sixth Iter, and is called from its position Fines Maximæ & Flaviæ. It was placed on the southerly side of the Mersey, on the right hand of the road, and about musquet-shot from the bridge. This the nature of the ground along the banks of the Mersey sufficiently evinces of itself, that being the only ground in the neighbourhood of the road and upon the margin of the river which the Romans could ever have selected for the site of a station. And this the voice of Tradition very remarkably confirms, asserting in its own wild way of detailing the circumstances of a fact, that the stones of the castle at Manchester were once transported to that part of the ground which is now denominated Scholes's Field in order to construct a church with them, and that they were afterwards removed away in a supernatural manner and within the period of a single night. The site is a rising ground of gravel and marl, now divided into two fields, and must have been once denominated, as the nearer of them is still called, the Rie or River Field. This is still bounded by a long deep broad ditch upon one side, the natural hollow having been greatly widened by the Romans, and now ranging in a regular even line more than twenty yards in breadth and three in depth. And this was formerly bounded by the Red or Read brook, which flowed directly under the bank and along the hollow, but is now intercepted by the course of the new canal; by the river Mersey, which received

ceived the current of the Read at the angle, and which rolled directly under the second stile; by a large ditch, I suppose, crossing along the middle of Scholes's Field, on the third; and by a narrow hollow, which is now formed into a lane, on the fourth. But, in one of those wild floods to which the Mersey is peculiarly subject, the river opened the soft bank of Lancashire, and now flows many yards within the county; having deserted its antient bridge of three arches, and having left its antient channel under the Roman castrum. Such must have been the site of the little station Fines, Maximæ & Flavix, being about four Roman miles and a half from the site of the principal station, and containing about two statute-acres and a half within its limits. Placed near to the ford of the Mersey and nearer to the course of the road, amid the large expanse of these level meadows it was well calculated to guard them both, to secure the convoys of provisions that passed along the one and over the other from the neighbouring parts of Cheshire, and to receive them into its area when the frequent floods prevented a passage across the channel. And a Roman road appears advancing towards it from the south-eastern limits of the parish, traversing the whole breadth of the parish on the south, and still carrying a considerable ridge in several parts of its course. It is particularly conspicuous at Birch, is popularly represented as a breast-work thrown up against the Danes, and is popularly denominated Nico (or Devil's) Ditch. The wasteful ravages of the Danes in their plundering expeditions through the island were so strongly impressed upon the feelings and fancies of our fathers, that the memory of them has generally superseded all the other traditions of the island, and the chronicles of the vulgar generally refer every remarkable monument to the Danes. And this road is noticed in a record of 1442 as actually travelled to that late period, some land being described as abutting upon a certain gate (or antient highway) which led from Gorton-green to Reddish, *quandam portam quæ itur a Gorton-greene usque Reddish ex parte australi*.

Another station was seated equally upon the course of a Roman road and upon the margin of the Mersey. It was settled at Stockport. This town appears evidently the one common center to three or four very variously directed roads of the Romans. The High-street advances to it from Manchester, and the Pepper-street hastens to it from Hanford^s. And in the parish of Ashton and near the foot of Staley-bridge is a third road, commonly denominated Staley-street for a mile together. A branch of this must have been the above-mentioned road to Stretford. And the main line lies pointing clearly from Castleshaw to Stockport. These are sure signatures of a Roman station at Stockport. And the general sameness in the position of this and the former fort, this being placed, like that, upon the limits of the two provinces and the banks of the liminary stream, and this being planted, like that, in the road betwixt two considerable stations, demonstrates a sameness in the design and requires a similarity in the nature of both. This must have been fixed upon the site of the castle and the area of the castle-hill at Stockport. That is exactly such a site as the Romans must have instantly selected for such a station. That is a small area detached from the level ground of the market-place, and connected with it only by an isthmus. And that is a small square knoll which projects from the southern side of the river, looks down upon the long steep slope of the rocky bank, and has the young Mersey frequently rolling its rumbling torrents at the foot of it. The area must have been the actual site of a castle in the earliest period of the Saxon residence among us, as the castle must have originally communicated its name to the town, and as both were denominated Stock-port because the former was a port or castle in a wood^s. The area is about half a statute-acre in extent, the site is still incomparably strong in itself, and the position is happily fitted for the ford. The station must have had a steep of an hundred or an hundred and twenty yards in descent upon three sides of it, and must have been guarded by a fosse across the isthmus. And the Roman road into East-Cheshire must have been effectually commanded by it, that road being obliged by the circling

current

current of the Mersey to approach very near to the Castle, and being evinced by the remaining steepness in the other parts of the neighbouring banks to have actually advanced up to it, and to have actually ascended the brow in an hollow immediately beneath the eastern side of it.

Such was the position of the two stations on the borders of the two provinces. But the position of the four other Agrarian stations is very different from these. One of the four was on the right hand of the present road to Bury, immediately beyond Singleton Brook, and upon the first field in the parish of Prestwich. The site was formerly denominated Low-caster^o, and is now denominated sometimes How-castle Field, but more popularly, though to the same purport, Castle-Hill. It is a rising hillock of sand, having a plane of half an acre and a fine spring of water under an aged oak. On the one side the ground falls away from it briskly near the road and gently at a distance from it, and had probably a small ditch at the foot of the fall. On the second side was certainly another ditch, the remains of it still plainly appearing, and the hedge of the field being now placed along the channel of it. The remaining sides form a very steep slope of twenty thirty-five or forty yards; and the ditch is still very evident below, now extending along the whole of one of them, and lately curving round the angle and proceeding for several yards along the other. At the termination of this ditch was the entrance into the *Castrum*, which still appears ascending the bank obliquely, and distinguished to the eye by the remaining hollow of it. And fixed as this tumultuary fort was at the distance nearly of a mile from the course of the road to Ribchester, it could never be intended to have any particular relation to it. The garrison in the one could not possibly, as such, be any security to the convoys upon the other. The fort must therefore have been constructed with a different view. It must have been designed only for the protection of the cattle which pastured along the adjoining fields on the west. And for such a protection the Romans commonly established a tumultuary fort. The one whole township of Broughton and Kerfall must in the

the time of the Romans have been all covered with an extensive wood, as so covered it remained even to the period of the Norman conquest. And the cattle which the Romans must have kept within it were their hogs. For such cattle the yearly-falling acorns of the oaks would afford a luxurious food. For such cattle the wood appears through many ages to have shed the annual produce of its trees, and two or three fields that are near to Kerfall-moor and close to the present bowling-green are still denominated the Hog-hoys. And for such cattle a right of pasnage even along the unwooded extent of the present moor was recently contested in a court of Justice, the township of Salford asserting a claim and the lords of Kerfall refelling it. The soil being still friendly to the growth of oaks, the many acorns which the provident crows reposit in tufts of grass along every extended waste, and which, being in winter forgotten and lost, shoot up into little plants, are skilfully rooted up and eagerly devoured by the observant hogs. Thus was Lowcafter designed to protect the cattle of the Romans that fed in the wood of Broughton. And thus the moor of Kerfall, which now annually receives at the races the gathering thousands of the town and its populous precincts, was in the time of the Romans, perhaps in the time of the Britons before them, and certainly for many ages after both, a wood of oaks and a pasture for hogs; and the little knolls which so remarkably diversify the plain, and are annually covered at the races with mingled crouds rising in ranks over ranks to the top, were once the occasional sleeping-places of Roman porkers and the occasional seats of Roman herdsmen".

But settled as the fort of Lowcafter was at one extremity of the long wood, it pretty plainly required a correspondent fort at the other. And such was the high mount of gravel and sand which rises tapering from its ample base, overlooks the whole extent of the original wood, and is now denominated Raineshow. Tradition asserts it to be the site of an antient camp: and, as it has only an irregular plane of an acre and an half at the top, it cannot be the site of any but an Agrarian camp. And it carries exactly the same appearance with Lowcafter, having a steep descent

scent on every side, ditches encircling the hill, and a brook flowing at the bottom. The banks are much steeper and higher than the banks of Lowcaſter, having a ſharp deſcent of an hundred yards upon one ſide, a ſharper of eighty on another, and a ſteep fall of fifty and a gentle one of an hundred in the boggy grounds beyond on the reſt. The ditches, which are very viſible on one ſide, which may be eaſily traced along two others, and which form the preſent ditch of the field on the fourth, are not at the bottom of the ſlope, but conſiderably above the middle of it, and are twenty-five twenty and fifteen yards in depth. And the entrance is the preſent road of acceſs from the Moor, the road coming up the lane from the brook, and aſcending directly the ſteep of the hill.”

Another little ſtation was placed within the Vale of Broughton, in the preſent township of Pendleton, and near the extremity of the lane that paſſes through New-hall Fold to the river. It is an oblong hillock of ſand, and is popularly denominated Hyle or Hill Wood. It has an irregular plane of half an acre in extent, had its entrance, as it ſtill has, on the ſouth-weſt, and another opening behind to the river, and is ſurrounded in every part by deep ditches or ſteep aſcents or both that ſink fifteen twenty thirty or forty yards below the ſurface of the Hill. And amid the beautiful valley in which the fort was placed, the valley that is formed by the high grounds of Salford Pendleton Kerſal and Broughton, ſurrounded as it was by the pleaſing circle of theſe ſloping hills, and remote from every ſtationary road, it could have only one military object in view. That muſt have been the protection of the cattle which grazed along the ample level of the valley. For ſuch grazings the valley muſt have been particularly ſuited, as the brown hazel-coloured mold of it is remarkably rich, as the ſite of it was ſufficiently near to the great ſtation, and as the ſtream of the Irwell, courſes thrice through the whole extent of it. The Irwell, entering the vale by a large opening on the north-weſt, and flowing directly beneath the weſtern hills to the ſouth, is turned to the north-eaſt by the heights of Pendleton, is warped towards the eaſt by the heights

of Kerfal, is returned towards the south by the hills of Broughton, and is again diverted to the east and again beaten back towards the north by the high grounds of Salford. But these speedily subsiding into a valley, the waters pursue the direction of the ground, and escape round Salford to the town of Manchester. Some site therefore was absolutely necessary that should rise over the rest of the ground, and naturally command the valley around it. But as none such presented its useful elevation within the whole circuit of the vale, art supplied the omission of nature, raising the present mount, and fetching the materials for it from the sandy bed of the river. This the particular nature of its situation evinces, placed as it is in the narrow point between two reaches of the river, and securing the avenue into the ample and beautiful horse-shoe which is described by them. And this the particular nature of the soil demonstrates, so different as it is from the native soil of the fields around it, and so plainly a mixed collection of water-sand chequered with little fragments of reddish rock.

Closely connected with it was a similar fortress in its neighbourhood. This is a rounded knoll, which is denominated Castle-hill, and which appears at a little distance from upon the curving side of the Kerfal-heights. The soil is a collection of gravel and sand, having an area of half an-acre above, steep banks of twenty fifteen and ten yards in height on every side, and boggy grounds on three sides around it. Upon the fourth, which had not the advantage of a descent from it, and had even the disadvantage of a small gentle descent to it, are two large ditches, an outer one and an inner, and are about twelve eight and six yards in depth, and twenty fifteen and twelve in breadth. And where these terminate was the road of entrance into the fort. Such is the little fortress upon the side of the hill, very near to Bents-house upon Kerfal-moor but nearer to the Grand Stand; and it has a strong spring of water breaking out a little above and descending along the side of it. And such is the fortress which the Romans must have formed with the same views with which they planned the station upon Hillwood; and for the

the same protection of their cattle. The mount of Hillwood being fixed in the narrow opening into the curve which is described on the eastern side of the vale, and being separated by an arm of the river from the large extent of the meadows on the western northern and north-western sides, it could be designed to guard the cattle only that ranged within the compass of the curve. But the cattle in those divided pastures must have wanted a protection as well as the others. And the garrison upon the mount could not afford it. The intervention of the river must have rendered the communication with these pastures uncertain and the assistance of the garrison precarious. Observing this, the Romans were obliged to form another Agrarian fortress. But they were not obliged to raise another artificial mount. They were obliged only to plant a fortress upon the northern side of the vale, as this great curve of the meadows opened only to the north. And they planted it upon a convenient projection from the side of the north-western hills. For a connection with the fort at Hillwood and a defence of their cattle in the valley, the site was as properly calculated as it was almost necessarily chosen. For such a connection and such a defence only was the site properly calculated at all, being a good way upon the descent from the height and much below the level of the moor. And such a connection is still asserted by tradition, which fixes an army in both the castles, and sets the one in opposition to the other.

This then was manifestly the design of the six little fortresses that we find in the immediate neighbourhood of Manchester. Three of them demonstratively Roman, and all of them equally Romanized in their general aspect, they were undoubtedly the Agrarian fortresses appendant to the station on the Medlock. Two of them being calculated merely for the protection of the convoys on the roads, the other four were constructed for the security of the cattle in the pastures. These therefore were all planted in one particular quarter of our Mancunian precincts. Planted by pairs, each of the two evidently carries a striking and particular relation to its fellow. And each of the pairs as evidently chal-

enges a striking but general affinity to the other. The high dry grounds of the hills, and the low moist meadows of the vale, must have been successively and alternately the pastures of the Roman cattle. The Romans appear to have regularly kept a similar change and relay of pastures for their shepherds in Italy, confining their cattle to the marshes during the summer, and driving them up into the hills at the return of the winter". And the Roman Britons are equally attested, though they are not equally known, to have adopted the same practice. Britain, says Gildas, abounds in hills that are very convenient for the alternate pastures of our flocks and our herds, *montibus alternandis animalium pastibus magnè convenientibus* ". These low meadows are generally overflowed every winter from the many arms of the Irwell that indent and intersect the face of them, and present a strongly impressive scenery to the eye, an ocean of water in wild agitation tumbling round the valley. In winter therefore these meadows must have been totally deserted by the Roman garrison, and the Roman cattle must have beheld the growing deluge securely from the hills above. And both together must have regularly formed the one great nursery of the Roman cattle, and both together must have regularly supplied the little subordinate nursery at the confluence of the Medlock and the Irwell.

Vegetius lib. iii. c. 8.—² Mr. Percival in *Phil. Trans.*—³ Vegetius lib. iii. c. 8.—⁴ See B. I. c. iv. f. 3. for another station upon a field called Ric-Hey. —⁵ The name of the brook Read is actually British. See b. I. ch. i. f. 3. note ".—⁶ Vegetius lib. iii. c. 8: *Subvectio frumenti cæterarumque specierum.*—⁷ A deed in the chest of the collegiate chapter at Manchester, entitled the feoffment made by the feoffees to John Huntingdon Warden. —⁸ See B. I. ch. v. f. 3.—⁹ And the neighbouring peninsula of Portwood must have been so denominated, because it was more recently the site of the remaining wood of the castle.—¹⁰ In a record of 1322, entitled *Perquisitæ Curie [de Manchester]*, and mentioning *viam regiam inter Manchester et Burghton usque le*

Low-cafter (Kuerden fol. p. 279.)—"Vegetius lib. iii. c. 8. Animalium Pafcu.—" A full account of this wood will be given in B. III.—" More concerning this in B. III.—" It makes the army on Rainefhow to be Danes, and therefore fometimes vainly fancies the name to be Dainefhow.—" Juftin lib. viii. c. 5.—
" Hift. c. i.

III.

THE *Castra Æftiva* or fummer-camps of the Romans are an addition to the regular ftations which has been long noticed and is very common. As the latter were generally fixed upon the foutherly flope of an hill or bank, they were well calculated for the keennefs of our winters, and as ill for the warmth of our fummers. The Romans therefore naturally conftituted an additional camp for their ftation in the fummer. For this they neceffarily felected fome advantageous fite, which was in the neighbourhood of the regular ftation, and which was fully open to the north. Such was apparently the general reafon for which the Romans conftituted their fummer-camps. Such was confequently the general principle upon which they felected the proper pofitions for them. And every ftation in the kingdom that has a foutherly afpect in itfelf, and any advantageous ground near it with a northerly one, muft have regularly claimed the pleafing appendage of a fummer-camp.

The ftation of Mancunium, having both the former, muft certainly have had the latter. A fummer-camp was abfolutely neceffary at Mancunium, as the warm beams of fummer are uncommonly fervid and fcorching upon the flope of the Caftlefield. But where would the Romans moft probably settle the ftation? The high grounds of Mr. Reynolds's park or the higher grounds which are immediately to the north of them, the heights of the Stony Knolls or the hills of Broughton, would each of them afford a fufficient elevation and a defenfible fite. Thefe
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also would be near or upon the road to Ribchester. But these would be some of them too remote from the winter-station, some of them too remote from a supply of water, and have none of them any vestiges of a camp upon them. Shall we then pitch upon Howcastle-field or Hill-wood for the site of this additional castrum? One of the very few antiquarians that Manchester or its environs have hitherto produced did fondly suppose the former to be the actual site ¹. But as the latter is much too low and both are much too small, so is the former as much too remote from the bank of the Medlock, being more than three measured miles and a half from it.

The real site appears to have been pretty near to the regular station, and about a mile to the north of it, and is now the site of the Collegiate Church, the Collegiate House or the Hospital, and many other buildings. This is infinitely the properest site in the vicinity of the town that can pretend to attract the notice of the enquiring antiquarians. This is absolutely the only site in the vicinity of the station that could pretend to attract the notice of the examining Romans. In the earliest period of the Saxon history of Manchester selected for the seat of its lord, as I shall shew hereafter ², and accordingly denominated Baron's Hull and Baron's Yard, and a part of it still retaining the appellation of Huntsbank, it, and it alone, is exactly such a site as the exigencies of the Romans required. It is banked on two sides by ribs of rocks either very steep or absolutely perpendicular, and looks down from a very lofty summit upon the waters of the Irke stealing directly along it on the one side, and upon the stream of the Irwell breaking directly against it on the other. It spreads its area of dry compacted sand gently leaning to the north and west, and from the lowness of the ground about it on the south-west the west north-west and north-east, and from the constant ventilations of the air by the briskness of the currents below, peculiarly feels in the summer a succession of refreshing breezes. And thus admirably fitted for a camp by its formidable barriers upon two sides, and incomparably adapted for a summer-camp by its position upon two concurrent streams,

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its overlooking all the low grounds of Salford and Strangeways, and commanding a distant view of the country even as far as Horwich Moor; it had the Roman road to Ribchester stretching along the western side of it, it still shews the striking remains of an antient ditch along the southern and eastern sides, and it just contains within its limits the requisite number of acres for a summer-camp. The area comprized within the ditch and the rivers is exactly twelve statute-acres and a half in compass.

The fosse, commencing from the lofty margin of the Irke and from that point of it where the common sewer now discharges its waters into the river, was not carried in a right line through the high ridge that directly opposed its course, but curved along the ground which must then have been somewhat lower than the rest, and which now forms the streets of Toad-lane and of Hanging-ditch. The names of the streets evince the general direction, and the aspect of the streets demonstrates the particular nature, of the fosse. The line of both still curves as the channel curved. And the level of both still exhibits the hollow of a channel bounded upon each side by a steepy ridge. In the narrow street of Toad-lane the breadth of the channel, commensurate nearly with the width of the street, appears to have been only four or five yards at the margin. In the larger street of Hanging-ditch the width of the channel, commensurate equally with the breadth of the street, appears to have opened into eight or ten yards at the margin. And at the western termination of the Hanging-ditch, making a considerable curve on the right in order undoubtedly to avoid the knoll at the end of Cateaton-street and to sweep along the lower ground to the right of it, it runs very deep and very broad to the Irwell. The northern line of the houses in Cateaton-street and all the buildings of the Hanging-bridge are seated within the channel of it. And the road to the church is carried over it upon two lofty arches of stone. For the greater security of a station which had in all probability no vallum either of stone or of earth about it, the Romans naturally trenched through the whole width of the ground from the Irke to the Irwell. For the greater coolness

of a castrum which was certainly designed only for the heats of summer, the Romans as naturally diverted the waters of the Irke into the channel of the trench. An opening was made in the rocky margin of the Irke, which remains very visible to the present period, the angles of the rock appearing rounded away, the chasm extending four or five yards in width, and a sewer of the town being now laid into the cavity. And three or four yards lower in the channel of the Irke the marks of the diverting dam remain equally visible in the bank. The rock appears cut away for five or six yards in breadth and three quarters of a yard in depth, in order to receive one end of the dam into it, and to fix the whole frame secure against the violence of the obstructed current. And the channel of the fosse was sunk considerably below the present level of it even in its deepest part about the western termination, the ground a little to the west of the Hanging-bridge having been recently found to be merely adventitious for the depth of nine or ten yards, and the plane of the rock below appearing strongly furrowed with the wheels of the carts that in some later ages have passed by this duct from Salford towards the Hanging-ditch.

This was the pleasing impregnable site of the summer-camp of the Romans, lined with tall impracticable precipices behind, covered with a fosse enormously deep and broad before, and insulated by the three lively currents of water around it. Where for more than eight successive centuries the public devotions of the town have been regularly preferred to Heaven, where for more than twenty successive generations the plain forefathers of the town have been regularly reposed in peace, the Romans once kept their summer-residence, and enjoyed the fanning breezes of the west and north: Where the bold barons of Manchester spread out the hospitable board in a rude magnificence of luxury, or displayed the instructive mimicry of war in a train of military exercises; where the fellows of the college studied silently in their respective apartments, or walked conversing in their common gallery; and where young indigence now daily receives the judicious dole of charity, and folds his little hands in gratitude
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to God' for it; there previously rose the spreading pavilions of the Romans, and there previously glittered the military ensigns of the Frisians.

The great entrance into the camp must have been along the road from Castle-field to Ribchester and across the deepest part of the fosse, as another must have been where the same road deserted the area and at the foot of the Huntbank. At these points must have been the two great gateways of the camp. And the road must have entered the summer-station as it communicated before with the winter, by the useful intervention of a bridge.. But just at the north-westerly extremity of the area, and taking in a good compass of ground about it, appears to have been the citadel of the station, the fortified site of the *Prætorium*. This is the part which has been more recently denominated the Baron's Yard and the Baron's Hull. This is necessarily from its situation, overhanging the point of the two undying streams, by much the coolest part of the area. This is necessarily from its nature, being at the angle of the two concurrent precipices, by much the most defensible part of the station. And this has been undoubtedly secured by an interior fosse. On opening the ground of the new burying-place, and of the adjoining land upon the east, in the months of August 1766 and of July and August 1767, appeared evidently the hollow of a broad deep ditch filled up with rubbish, the northern border of the black earth ranging nearly in a line with the southern wall of the burying-ground, and the southern undoubtedly extending along the northern wall of the church-yard. The dry unctuous mass reached above three yards in depth below the level of the street, and lay upon a bed of the native sand. Commencing at the edge of the Roman road to Ribchester and near the beginning descent of the Huntbank, it ranged along the Hall-street to the end, and it descended the Long-Millgate to the School. There, under the second house to the east of the School, was it likewise discovered in the year 1765 on sinking the cellar of the house, and appeared a channel cut through the solid rock, two yards in depth, about three in breadth, and four

or five in length, terminating at one end upon the edge of the rocky precipice, and pointing at the other up the line of the Millgate. And there is it expressly mentioned as a channel even in a late record of 1422, and thence is it expressly pointed up the line of the Millgate to the top⁴.

Such was the summer-camp for the Frisian garrison of Mancunium! Thither the garrison removed in the beginning of our summer, and there they resided during the continuance of it, Not that the whole body of the garrison ever removed. Some undoubtedly remained in the winter-station, as many as were sufficient to secure it; and these were the more commodiously lodged in the absence of the rest. The number of these however must necessarily have been the smaller, as the station of the summer was so near to the castrum of the winter. And the area of the former must have been covered, not with structures of timber and stone, as the latter was, but with the cooler habitations of tents. These must have been reared at the beginning of the summer and previous to the removal of the Frisians to the former. These must have been taken down at the conclusion of the summer and posterior to the return of the Frisians to the latter, and have been laid up during their residence at it in the little arsenal of the garrison. And the aspect of this castrum must have been nearly the same as that of the other, the tents of the soldiers being ranged in the same lines, the standards of the centuries and the vexilla of the contubernia rising over them, and the pavilion of the commandant the standard of the cohort and the temple of the garrison rising equally together, and towering gracefully over the whole.

⁴ Mr. Percival in Phil. Trans. — "B. II. ch. iii. c. 2. —" So at the station of Brough in Derbyshire. There, as here, the Prætorium was upon one side and along the lofty margin of the river-bank. — "In a record kept at the collegiate church of Manchester, entitled the feoffment made by the feoffees to John Huntingdon warden.

IV.

IT is supposed by the sensible and accurate Horsey, that the Roman garrison in Britain during the second third and fourth centuries amounted only to three legions, the sixth Victorious, the twentieth Valerian and Victorious, and the second Augustan, and the auxiliaries regularly attendant upon them. And with this supposition the History of Dio the Geography of Ptolemy and the Itinerary of Antonine seem all to concur, as they all mention these three and only these three legions to be resident in the island. This number of legions, as appears from the complement of a single legion during the second third and fourth centuries, which was six thousand one hundred foot and seven hundred and twenty-six horse, and from the stated proportion of the auxiliary to the legionary troops, which was equal in the infantry and double in the cavalry, must have contained about thirty-six thousand six hundred foot and six thousand five hundred and thirty-four horse. Such must have been the greatest amount of them, even if every corps had its full complement of men. And we can have little doubt, but among a nation which was extremely numerous, and in a country which was only in part subdued, the legions and their auxiliaries were constantly supplied with fresh recruits and maintained in their full force.

But, thus considered, three legions and their auxiliaries are plainly insufficient for the purposes of garrisoning the island. The long list which the two Itineraries give us of the Roman stations in Britain absolutely demonstrates them to be insufficient. That list presents us with one hundred and forty or one hundred and fifty stations, even after the Romans had retired to the vallum of Antoninus, and had abandoned all the stations that extended from Inverness to the Friths. Those must certainly have been all of them constantly garrisoned by the Romans, as otherwise they would neither have been constructed at first nor have

been recited in the Itineraries afterwards. And I have shewn each station to have been attended with various little chefters, which muft have required garrifons nearly equal in their amount to the complement of the principal ftation. But it would be evidently ridiculous to diftribute a body of forty-three thoufand men into one hundred and forty principal ftations, as fuch a diftribution could allot only about three hundred and feven for a ftation and its attendant caftellets.

The garrifon of every ftation in the Itinerary with its caftellets, except five or fix that were merely conftituted *Ad Fines*, could not poffibly have been lefs than four hundred effective men. A greater number muft have been requifite for moft, and a fmallier would not be fufficient for any. And, even upon this difpofition, the total amount of troops requifite for one hundred and forty garrifons would be fifty-fix thoufand men. This is apparently the fmall eft number of troops that we can fuppofe to have refided in the kingdom. But a much greater muft certainly have refided in it, as, during the difperfon of the reft, fome more confiderable bodies muft have been kept together, the more effectually to overawe the conquered Britons within the walls and the unconquered Britons without. And fuch bodies actually appear to have been kept together, one large corps being quartered at York, another at Chefter, and a third at Caerleon in Monmouthfhire.

This being the cafe, there muft neceffarily have been more than three legions within the ifland. The pofitive testimony of Joſephus affares us, that there were no lefs than four in the ifland during the reign of Veſpaſian *. And the accounts of Richard, and the difcovered infcriptions of the Romans, evince that there were more afterwards. Several infcriptions have been found at Caer Rhon or the antient Conovium in Wales, which clearly exhibited the name of the tenth legion. The fact is very particularly authenticated, having the united attestation of the reverend Mr. Brickdate and of Dr. Gale, each unknown to the other, and both concurring in the fame testimony *. Hence the tenth legion appears undeniably to have been quartered among the

Ordovices

Ordovices in general and at the station of Conovium in particular. And it must have long remained at the latter, because the still-remaining name of a neighbouring mountain, Mynydh Caer Lheion or the Mountain of the City of the Legion', shews the town to have obtained the same name among the neighbouring Britons, that Deva the seat of the sixth legion for three centuries acquired on one side, and that Isca Silurum the seat of the second for as long a period still retains on the other'. And to this we may add the Claudian legion, as the seventh was peculiarly called, having obtained that particular honour from the senate because of its particular attachment to Claudius during the short-lived but alarming rebellion of 42'. This legion was settled at Gloucester in the reign of Claudius". And at Gloucester it must have remained for a considerable period, as in the historical monuments of the Romans which Richard of Cirencester inspected the town was denominated from it Legio Claudia, and as in our own monuments it still retains the similar appellation of Claudiocestria".

Thus have we discovered five legions resident for a long time within the island, two additional to the number supposed by Mr. Horseley, and seemingly fixed by the Geography of Ptolemy the History of Dio and the Itinerary of Antoninus. But the general lists of the Roman legions in these authors are very defective. That of Dio, which is the fullest, mentions only thirty-one in the whole, that of Antoninus only twenty-six, and that of Ptolemy only seventeen. Such are their lists of the Roman legions. And as the two last of them appear particularly defective upon a collation merely with the first, so is this expressly declared to be the list of those legions only which consisted entirely of Roman citizens". And the many legions that were composed of private volunteers from the subject nations, and which were very distinct from the bodies of auxiliaries supplied by the national authority of each, as the fifth legion of the Gauls, the tenth of the Batavians", and the twelve others that are recited in the following list, all these are absolutely and professedly omitted in this". The authentic records of inscriptions demonstrate

demonstrate the number of both to have been fifty or sixty at least ". And the suggestions of common sense, still more authentic than records, evince the absolute necessity of as many (independently of the national auxiliaries) to secure the wide-extended dominions of the Roman empire. The express number of the Roman legions appears indeed from Dio to have been only about twenty-three or twenty-five from the reign of Augustus to the reign of Alexander Severus ", and appears from inscriptions to have never exceeded thirty-six afterwards. And this has been generally supposed by our antiquarians to be absolutely the whole number of the Roman legions. But as several of these were certainly legions of foreign volunteers, so each of the others, except perhaps the eighth the eleventh the fourteenth and the thirtieth, had several extraordinary brigades of citizens or of foreigners belonging to them, every one of which had equally the complement and the denomination of a legion, and was distinguished from each other and from the original brigade of the legion by some additional title. This title was generally assumed by these and by the original brigades from the kingdoms of their first or longest residence. Hence in Dio's catalogue of purely Roman legions we find so many of them distinguished by the denominations of Gallic, Cyrenean, Scythian, Macedonian, Egyptian, Germanic, and Parthic ". And hence the tenth Twin legion, being long stationed in Germany, and the second Augustan, being longer settled in Britain, appear under the particular appellation of the tenth Germanic and the second Britanic legions in Ptolemy and the Notitia. The titles of the original and of the additional brigades were frequently derived from the name of the emperor under whom the legion or its brigades had been originally raised, or by whom the one or the other had been particularly favoured. And as the original and the additional battalions can seldom be distinguished by the nature of their names, so may they constantly be distinguished by the catalogue of Dio. Thus the seventh legion had the several legionary brigades which were called the seventh Claudian and the seventh Galban, two brigades

consisting

consisting of Romans and therefore specified by Dio, and the seventh Twin, the seventh Twin Claudian, and the seventh Twin Antonian, three brigades consisting of foreigners, and therefore omitted by him¹⁸. And thus the tenth had the tenth Fretan and the tenth Twin, two enumerated brigades of Romans, and the tenth Antonian Augustan and the tenth Batavian, two unnoticed brigades of foreigners¹⁹.

The tenth legion is mentioned by Dio, and is placed by him in Judea; and Josephus had previously placed it at Jerusalem²⁰. And the brigade intended by both appears undeniably from the Notitia to have been equally denominated the tenth Fretan²¹. That brigade was settled in Judea by Titus: and in Judea it continued to the period of the Notitia. But the legion which was stationed in Wales, and which appears from the above-mentioned inscriptions to have been certainly a brigade of the tenth, appears pretty clearly from a coin which was discovered in that country and which was inscribed with the following name, to have been the tenth Antonian Augustan²². This from its appellation appears to have been a single legion; but the seventh was a double one. Many of the legionary brigades were denominated *Gemellæ*, *Geminæ*, or *Twins*, because they were compounded of two brigades and had a double complement of men²³. Such was a brigade of the tenth of the thirteenth and of the fourteenth legions²⁴. Such also, as appears above, were three of the five brigades in the seventh. One of these, the Twin Claudian legion, was that which was stationed at Gloucester. It could not have been, as Dr. Stukeley supposes it to be, the brigade which was denominated more simply the seventh Claudian legion, which accompanied Cæsar in his first expedition into Britain, and which from the days of Dio to the period of the Notitia was stationed constantly in the Higher Mœsia²⁵. Our Claudian legion appears to have been continued in the island after the days of Dio, and even to the days of Carausius²⁶. Our Claudian legion must therefore have been the only other brigade of the seventh which bore the title of Claudian,

dian, and which obtained the discriminative title of the 'Twin Claudian'.

The troops then which the Romans maintained in the island were five legions, one of which was a double legion, and all of which had their attendant auxiliaries, or about seventy-three thousand foot and thirteen thousand horse. The headquarters of one of these legions, the twentieth, were in all probability fixed at Chester by the direction of Agricola and at the termination of his war. The twentieth legion certainly resided at Chester within seventy years after that period". And we have the positive testimony of Malmesbury, perhaps the vehicle of tradition, but probably the copier of history, that one or more of the Julian legions, the legions commanded by Julius Agricola, were actually settled at Chester". We have also the determinate the decisive testimony of Richard, that Chester was originally constructed by the soldiers of the twentieth legion". And the Frisian cohort which resided at Mancunium must in all probability have been a part of its auxiliaries, one of the eight cohorts which were annexed to the ten of the legion, and which must ordinarily have accompanied the legion upon expeditions in war, and ordinarily have been disposed within the stations that were nearest to it in peace.

But the whole of the Frisian cohort, as I have previously mentioned, was not lodged in the station upon the Medlock. Six detachments from it were constantly kept in the six stations of Stretford and of Stockport, of Lowcafter and of Raineslow, and of Castle Hill and Hillwood. The first station must have required about nine Centubernia or an hundred men for a garrison; the third and fourth about an hundred and thirty men; and the fifth sixth and second about an hundred and twenty". Thus three hundred and fifty of the Mancunian Frisians were constantly detached upon duty to these six subordinate castra. Each corps must have been under the regulation of the same discipline as the main body. And each must have been soon recalled to the

the duties of the principal station, and have been soon succeeded by a new draught from the principal garrison".

¹ B. I. ch. vi.—² Dion p. 794. and 795.—³ Vegetius l. ii. c. 6. and 7. where he speaks expressly of *Ordinatio legionis antiquæ*.—⁴ See Horfeley p. 87.—⁵ Cæsar p. 88. *Hominum est infinita multitudo*.—⁶ De Bell. Jud. lib. ii. c. 16, Camden col. 801. Gibson, and Gale p. 122. See therefore a mistake in Horfeley concerning this legion.—⁷ Camden col. 802.—⁸ See a mistake therefore in Dr. Gale p. 123.—⁹ Dion p. 795. and Ursatus.—¹⁰ Richard p. 24. 36. and 51.—¹¹ Richard p. 36. and Higden p. 198. Gale, &c. &c.—¹² Dio p. 794. *στρατοπεδα Πολιτικά*. and p. 797. *των εκ τῆ Καταλογῆ στρατευομένων*.—¹³ Suetonius in Cæfare cap. 24. and Gruter p. 514.—¹⁴ Dio p. 797.—¹⁵ See Sertorius Ursatus.—¹⁶ Dio p. 794. and Sertorius.—¹⁷ P. 794 and 797.—¹⁸ Dio p. 795 and 796, the two legionary pillars in Gruter p. 513, and Sertorius.—¹⁹ Dio p. 795, *Notitia in Judæa*, Gruter p. 514, and Gale p. 122. And see the annexed list.—²⁰ Josephus p. 1297. Hudson.—²¹ P. 91. Pancirollus.—²² Gale p. 122.—²³ Dio p. 796. and Sertorius, and Cæsar p. 284.—²⁴ Dio p. 795 and 796.—²⁵ Dio p. 795. and *Notitia* p. 104.—²⁶ Stukeley's *Carausius* v. I. p. 175.—²⁷ And the additional title of *Gemina* to this legion is omitted in Stukeley's coins, as the appellation of *Fretensis* to the tenth is omitted in Dio and Josephus; as the epithet of *Gemina* to the fourteenth is never mentioned by Tacitus, though the legion appears from Richard to have had the epithet while it remained in Britain; and as the titles of *V. V.* or *Valerian Victorious* to the twentieth legion are dropt in the inscription upon an altar at Wroxeter (*Phil. Trans.* 1755. p. 196). See also the annexed list.—²⁸ Horfeley's *Cheshire* N° 3.—²⁹ So the *Appian Way* in Italy from Appius Claudius. So *Cohors Ælia*, *Pons Ælii*, &c. in Britain from *Ælius Hadrianus*. And so the *Julian Way* in Wales from Julius Frontinus.—*Malmesbury De Gestis Pontificum Anglorum* lib. iv. Sir H. Saville p. 164. has altered *Julianarum* into *Militarium* without assigning a single reason.

The only reason, I suppose, was the remark of Leland p. 53. vol. ix. Oxford edit. 2d. And Mr. Selden has justly blamed Sir Henry for the alteration. The MSS. in Leland's time read Julianarum. And Mr. Selden's MS., one very near in date to Malmesbury's time and formerly belonging to the priory of St. Austin at Canterbury, read the same (Poly-Olbion p. 182.)—
 "Romanorum Colonia Deva, opus vicesimæ legionis, Richard. p. 24.—" Vegetius lib. ii. c. 13.—" Vegetius lib. ii. c. 19.

A LIST

A L I S T

• OF THE

R O M A N L E G I O N S,

Collected from the Geography of Ptolemy the History of Dio and the Itinerary of Antoninus. Such Legions as were composed of Roman Citizens I have noted accordingly. Such as were embodied in or before the reign of Augustus I have noticed by subjoining the name of Augustus to them. And such as were embodied afterwards I have referred to their proper Emperors by a similar note.

PTOLEMY.	DIO.	ANTONINUS.	
Bertius.	P. 794—796.	Bertius.	
P. 53. Legio 1.	Leg. 1. Minervia	— — — —	Citizens:
L. Germany	L. Germ.		
	raised by Domitian.		
P. 63. Leg. 1 Adjut.	Leg. 1. Adj.	P. 15. Leg. 1. Adj.	Citizens.
H. Pannonia	L. Pannonia	Pannonia	
	raised by Galba.		
P. 88. Leg. 1. Ital.	Leg. 1. Ital.	P. 14. Leg. 1. Ital.	Citizens.
L. Mæfia	L. Mæfia	Lower Mæfia	
	raised by Nero		
P. 159. Leg.	Leg. 1. Parthic.	— — — —	Citizens.
on the Euphrates	Mesopotamia		
	raised by Severus		
— — — —	— — — —	P. 14. Leg. 1. Jovia	Foreigners.
		L. Mæfia	
P. 37. Leg. 2. Aug.	Leg. 2. Aug.	P. 31. Leg. 2. Aug.	Citizens.
Britain.	Britain	Britain	
	Augustus		

PTOLEMY.	DIO.	ANTONINUS.	
— — — —	Leg. 2. Adj. L. Pannonia raised by Vespasian	— — — —	Citizens.
— — — —	— — — —	P. 14. Leg. 2. Her- culea—Scythia	Foreigners.
P. 53. Leg. Trajan. L. Germany	Leg. 2. Egypt. Traj. L. Germany raised by Trajan	— — — —	Citizens.
— — — —	Leg. 2. Italica Noricum—raised by M. Antoninus	— — — —	Citizens.
— — — —	Leg. 2. Media Italy raised by Severus	— — — —	Citizens.
P. 111. Leg. 3 Aug. Numidia	Leg. 3 Aug. Numidia Augustus	— — — —	Citizens.
P. 163. Leg. Arabia	Leg. 3 Cyren. Arabia Augustus	— — — —	Citizens.
— — — —	Leg. 3 Gallica Phœnicia Augustus	— — — —	Citizens.
— — — —	Leg. 3 Ital. Rhætia—raised by M. Antoninus	— — — —	Citizens.
— — — —	Leg. 3 Parthica Mesopotamia raised by Severus	— — — —	Citizens.
— — — —	Leg. 4 Scyth. Syria Augustus	— — — —	Citizens.

PTOLEMY.	DIO.	ANTONINUS.	
— — — —	Leg. 4 Flavia Syria raised by Vespasian	— — — —	Citizens.
P. 64. Leg. L. Pannonia	Leg. 5 Maced. Dacia Augustus	P. 14. Leg. Maced. L. Mæfia	Citizens.
P. 37. Leg. 6 Vict. Britain	Leg. 6 Vict. Britain Augustus	P. 14. Leg. 6 Vict. Britain	Citizens.
— — — —	Leg. 6 Ferrea Judæa Augustus	— — — —	Citizens.
P. 44. Leg. 7 Ger- man.—Spain	Leg. 7. Spain raised by Galba	P. 25. Leg. 7 Ge- mina—Spain	Citizens.
P. 86. Legio . . . H. Mæfia	Leg. 7 Claud. H. Mæfia • Augustus	— — — —	Citizens.
— — — —	— — — —	P. 11. Leg. 7. Mesopotamia	Foreigners.
P. 53. Leg. 8 Aug. H. Germany	Leg. 8 Aug. H. Germany Augustus	P. 23. Leg. 8. Germany	Citizens.
P. 63. Leg. 10. Ger. H. Pannonia	Leg. 10. Gemina Pannonia	P. 15. Leg. 10. Ge- mina—Pannonia	Citizens.

PTOLEMY.	DIO.	ANTONINUS.	
— — —	Leg. 10. — Judæa Augustus	— — —	Citizens.
— — —	— — —	P. 22 and 23. Leg. 10. Germ. and Gaul.	Foreigners.
— — —	Leg. 11 Claud. L. Mæfia Augustus	P. 14. Leg. 11 Claud. L. Mæfia	Citizens.
— — —	Leg. 12 Fulminans Cappadocia Augustus	— — —	Citizens.
— — —	— — —	P. 23. Leg. 12. Germ. and Gaul	Foreigners.
— — —	— — —	P. 15 and 22. Leg. 13. Germ. and Gaul	Foreigners.
— — —	Leg. 13 Gemina Dacia Augustus	— — —	Citizens.
P. 63. Leg. 14 Germ. H. Pannonia	Leg. 14 Gemina H. Pannonia Augustus	P. 14. Leg. 14 Ge- mina—H. Mæfia	Citizens.
	Leg. 15 Apollin. Cappadocia Augustus		Citizens.

PTOLEMY.	DIO.	ANTONINUS.	
— — —	— — —	P. 23. Leg. 15. Germany	Foreigners.
— — —	— — —	P. 22 & 23. Leg. 16. Gaul and Germ.	Foreigners.
P. 14. Legio Gaul	— — —	P. 22. Leg. 18. Gaul	Foreigners:
P. 37. Leg. 20 Vict. Britain	Leg. 20 Val. Vict. Britain Augustus	P. 29. Leg. 20 Vict. Britain	Citizens.
— — —	Leg. 20 Val. H. Germ. Augustus	P. 23 and 14. Leg. 20 or Leg. Valer. Germ. & L. Mæf.	Citizens.
— — —	— — —	P. 23. Leg. 22. Germ. and Gaul	Foreigners.
— — —	— — —	P. 23. Leg. 23. Germany	Foreigners.
— — —	— — —	P. 23. Leg. 24. Germany	Foreigners.

PTOLEMY.	DIO.	ANTONINUS.	
<hr/>	<hr/>	P. 23. Leg. 25. Germany	Foreigners.
P. 53. Leg. 30 Ulpia L. Germany	Leg. 30 Ger. Ulpia <hr/> raised by Trajan	P. 15. Leg. 30 Ulpia Germany	Citizens.

C H A P. VII.

I.

REGULARLY as the Romans extended their conquests in the island, they appear equally to have erected stations for themselves and to have constructed cities for the Britons. Thus the towns of Gloucester Colchester London and Verulam were certainly erected by Claudius, and immediately after the first permanent conquest which the Romans effected amongst us. And as many inferior towns must have been equally constructed at the same period, so remains demonstrate Chichester and tradition asserts Cirencester in particular to have been both constructed at it. Such was the practice of the Romans in their first, and such must have been equally their practice in their subsequent, conquests of the Britons. By this means the progress of their arms was distinctly marked by the progress of cultivation, and the face of the island was gradually brightened up as the line of their conquests was advanced. By this means, when Agricola invaded the county of Lancaster, the country upon one side of the line, beneath the refining government of the Romans, exhibited a pleasing picture of populous cities and spreading corn-fields in the bosoms of extensive woods, and the country upon the ~~other~~ presented one uniformly dreary scene of mosses, woods, and marshes, embrowned heaths, and solitary mansions.

But this was not long the general aspect of Lancashire. The Romans advanced into the county, and imported all the useful refinements of civil life. These they introduced, not with the godlike design of softening the rough genius of Lancashire and of diffusing the sweets of social happiness among its inhabitants,

but merely to promote the little purposes of their own selfish policy. That eternal wisdom however which gave all the central regions of the globe to the Romans, and gave them for reasons worthy the great Father of Humanity, directed the low cunning of man to his own exalted ends, the higher cultivation of the rational powers, and the better propagation of the system of redeeming benevolence, among the Britons of Mancunium and of Lancashire.

Agricola subdued the county in his remarkable campaign of 79. In the autumn of that year he ordered the stationary forts to be erected. This was necessarily the first object of his attention. His second had a deeper reach and more permanent consequences. Actuated by the same principles of policy as had actuated the conduct of the preceding legates, he adopted the same political expedients. If the Britons of Lancashire adhered to their original mode of living, and dwelt dispersed amid their extensive forests or roved uncivilized among their extensive marshes, they would keep alive in their breasts their original spirit of independency, and be ever prompt for insurrections. Agricola therefore exerted all his address by private encouragements and public assistances, by praises to the willing chieftains and by rebukes to the unwilling, to invite the Siftuntii from their habitations in the one or the other to a common residence in towns. And his address prevailed. Many of the Siftuntii deserted their woods and swamps, and formed themselves into the little communities of cities.

Such was the first and original commencement of the present towns of Lancashire in general. Such was the first and original commencement of the town of Manchester in particular. In the autumn of 79 arose the eight towns of Lancaster, Overborough, Freckleton, Blackrode, and Ribchester, Colne, Warrington, and Manchester. The erection of the towns in general is expressly asserted by Tacitus. The erection of these in particular is sufficiently attested by that Itinerary which was composed about sixty years only after the conquest of Lancashire. Six of these are particularly mentioned in it, and mentioned not merely

as stations but as cities, as cities adjoining to the stations, and as included in the same names and forming the same towns with them. Hence, and hence only, are some of the stations in that Itinerary mentioned as enjoying the honourable title of Colonies, more of them as possessing the Freedom of Italy, and still more as being only Stipendiary.

Thus was the autumn of 79 the very remarkable epoch of the first erection of our present towns in Lancashire. And these were all placed in the neighbourhood of the Roman stations. So placed were all the towns that had been previously constructed in the south, such only excepted as were formed into colonies from the beginning and had therefore no stations attendant upon them. The town of Londinium in particular, which even in the reign of Nero was famous for the number of its merchants and the extent of its commerce, but which was not then converted into a colony, was erected near to the station on St. Paul's Church-yard, and was carried along the line of the present Watling-street and Cheapside. And all the towns of Lancashire must have been erected upon similar sites. So situated, they best answered the policy of the legate and the accommodation of the garrison. And so situated all the Roman accounts of the island plainly shew them to have been, almost every station in those accounts being closely connected with one or other of our present towns, and antiquarian criticism being considerably employed in ascertaining the particular connection.

The town of Rerigonium was erected immediately to the north of the castrum, spreading from the influx of a brook into the Ribble up to the fosse of the station. At that point which now forms the bank of the town, the channel of the Ribble, and some meadow-ground to the south of both, have been discovered the most considerable remains. The Ribble has been almost the only discoverer of antiquities. And as he yearly bears down the bank of the town, and transfers a part of its site to the southern margin of his current, the floorings and foundations of houses have been visible in the face of the bank and about two or three feet only beneath the surface of it. The town of Coccium,

as the regular tradition of the present Blackrode asserts, was erected along the slope of the present hill, and was continued within a few yards from the station, from the barrow called Hasty-knoll, and from the river Douglas. And the town of Veratinum was built upon the humble elevation of the ground which terminates the marshy level of the Broad Howley on the north-east, and which is the boundary of the flooding Mersey. This was the nearest site to the station that was raised above the reach of the floods. There the ancient church and the attendant parsonage continue to the present period. There was originally the mote or court of the town, a small rounded knoll a little to the east of the church, being formerly denominated the Mote-hill. And there the town of Warrington continued to the conclusion of the fifteenth century, even till the passage over the ancient ford was deserted, a bridge was thrown across the Mersey below it, and the road was diverted from the one to the other. And as the town of Lancaster was constructed in the vicinity of the stationary hill, and upon the later site of the friery; the town of Overborough close to the station, and, like it, betwixt the two currents of the Lac and the Lune; and the town of Colne assuredly in the immediate vicinity of Caster-cliff; so the town of the Sifuntian Harbour was raised upon the nearest convenient site, where the high grounds of the Ness began to slope gently towards the Ribble, and where the little village of Freckleton stands pleasantly at present. The town of Manchester was originally constructed, not as the old central parts of it are now planted, at the distance nearly of a mile from the Castle-field, but in the nearer the more immediate neighbourhood of the station. No tradition however ascertains the particular site. In the vicinity of a great town and in a multiplicity of commercial avocations, little attention is generally paid to the remains of antiquity or to the whispers of tradition concerning them. But there is a small district which encompasses the Castle-field upon three sides, which is very frequently mentioned in our records, and which is all denominated ALDPORT or Old Borough. Some-
where

where 'therefore within the compass of this district must the town have originally stood.' And a little fold of houses remains in this district to the present period, which carries in all the records of the place the actual appellation of **ALDPORT-TON** or **Old Borough Town**. On the ground therefore immediately contiguous to these houses must the town have been originally planted. And betwixt the Castle-field and the fold is an area of sixteen or seventeen acres, which is now converted chiefly into gardens, and which was certainly the original area of the antient Manchester. This lies immediately without the northern barriers of the station, and this extends up to the new houses and the new church in the Camp-field. In the immediate skirts of a great town the plough must have long and frequently ransacked the ground. And the many antiquities which it called into light would either be never attended to at all or be seen admired and forgotten. But the soil of the southern part of this area is absolutely one great body of adventitious earth, fragments of bricks, pieces of hewn stones, and remnants of urns. Huge blocks of a millstone-grit, such as appeared in the rude foundation of the Britons within the Castle-field, and what had undoubtedly been brought down by the torrents of the Medlock, have been recently dug up within the circuit of the area with their mortar firmly adhering to them. And the whole level of the ground appears to have been traversed with streets of regular pavement in a variety of directions across it.

Upon that particular ground then which is terminated by an high steep bank and a morass below it on the west, by the great fosse of the station on the south, by the present highway or Aldport-lane on the east, and by Ticklepitcher-lane or Camp-field on the north, was the **TOWN OF MANCHESTER** originally erected. Upon this plat, then in the depth of the extensive wood of Arden, were the Sisoftuntii of this region induced by Agricola to erect a town. Thus induced, they felled the trees which from the first possession of the island had been the only tenants of the soil. They laid open the area, then first laid open,

to.

to the influence of the sun and winds. And they constructed their houses with the timber. The town was undoubtedly erected along the course of the road to Ribchester, commencing at first near the fosse of the station, extending in one direct street along the road, and afterwards forking off from it into others. And the ways of our towns must have originally received the Roman appellation of streets, because the rows of our houses were originally constructed along the line, and the passages between them were originally carried along the course, of the Roman highways or streets.

Such was the spot which Agricola selected for the position of the town of Mancunium. And such was the commencement of a town that was to become so conspicuous afterwards, to lengthen out into fair streets, and to open into graceful squares, to contain assembled thousands within her ample circuit, and to extend her varied commerce beyond the barriers of the ocean. The **TOWN OF MANCHESTER** commenced very early in the short reign of the amiable Titus; about the period of the first famous eruption from the flaming Vesuvius, the destruction of Herculaneum, and the death of the elder Pliny, and about the months of September and October in the ever-memorable year 79.

¹ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 33. and lib. xii. c. 32. and Richard p. 24.—² Richard p. 24. and Stukeley's Itin. Curios. p. 195.—

³ Ut Homines dispersi ac rudes, eoque bello faciles, quieti et otio per voluptates affluerent, hortari privatim, adjuvare publice, ut templa, fora, domus extruerent, laudando promptos et castigando segnes, &c. Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. 21. These and the subsequent words have hitherto been strangely applied to the conquered Britons at large. But, as I have here shewed, towns had been erected in the south before.—⁴ Richard p. 36, &c.—⁵ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 33. and Wren's Parentalia p. 265.—

⁶ Camden p. 617. and Leland vol. v. p. 82.—⁷ From some constructions made here about forty years ago by a gentleman of the name of Hooper the old appellation has been popularly altered

tered into Hooper-ton. So Aldport itself, being once made a park, has the name of Aldparc in Camden.

II.

TO this period the Siftuntii of the neighbouring district had lived as the unconquered Britons of the southern countries had lived before, and as the unconquered Britons of the northern continued to live. They were divided into little clans or families, and each acknowledged the authority of its proper chief. The number of ambacton or clients in each was different in different families, and was naturally greater or lesser according to the respective wealth of the chiefs. And these retainers always attended the car of their lord to war, and were always settled around his habitation in peace.

The lord's habitation was sometimes fixed conspicuously upon the summit of a hill, peeping over the tops of the surrounding trees, and commanding all the neighbouring country. More commonly it was placed within the cavity of a valley, and either upon the margin of one stream or at the confluence of two, for the conveniency of water and the security from winds. In both cases the ambacton lived either more immediately about the person of their chief, or in little booths along the windings of the vale; the latter however being always within reach of the usual signals from the mansion, the striking the shield or the blowing the horn of the chief.

The mansion was all constructed of wood, was all one ground-story, and all composed a large oblong and quadrangular court. A considerable portion of this was taken up by the apartments of such as were retained more immediately in the service of the seignior. And as the rest was more particularly his own habitation, so it consisted of one great and several little rooms. In the great room was the armoury of the lord; the arms of his fathers, the gifts of friends and the spoils of enemies, being disposed in order around the walls. In the great room sat the lord

lord with his family and his guests about him, all listening to the historical song and the five-stringed harp of his bards or to the songs and the harps of his daughters, and all drinking from cups of shell⁸.

The venison of the Britons was prepared in a manner equally curious and artful. It was laid upon a bed of flaming fern, and it was covered with a layer of smooth flat stones and another of fern above it⁹. And their ordinary liquors were only water, milk, or metheglin¹⁰. But upon all festival occasions they drank that well-known beverage which was then denominated Curmi and is now denominated Curwi by the Welch and Ale by the English¹¹. This liquor, originally the substitute of wine in such countries as could not produce the grape, was originally made in Egypt, the first planted country in the dispersion from the east that was found unable to produce it¹². And as the great Noachian colonies pierced further into the west, they found or thought they found the same defect, and supplied it in the same manner. Thus the natives of Spain the inhabitants of France and the aborigines of Britain all used an infusion of barley for their ordinary liquor, which was called by the various names of Cælia and Cæria in Spain of Cervisia in France and of Curmi in England, all literally importing only the strong-water¹³. This was more particularly the drink of the Britons. And this alone was transmitted from hand to hand in their cups of shell, when they feasted with their chief, when the burning oak lighted up the circuit of his hall, and when the winds whistled through his open windows¹⁴.

With this every chief must have been sufficiently provided, the barley being undoubtedly brought into Lancashire from the more southerly regions of the island, and being regularly exchanged with the Sifuntians for their cattle. For such or a similar commerce only could the Sifuntians have maintained half their numerous herds of cattle, as they appear to have lived equally upon venison as them¹⁵. And such a commerce appears to have been actually carried on, even after the arrival of the Romans, to the extremest boundaries of the north¹⁶. Each
chief

chief therefore must have been furnished with the implements of a brewery, and must have prepared his own liquor. But as the implements must have been very few and the preparation very simple, so the liquor appears to have been very strong, and both in colour and in flavour little inferior to wine".

In this state of rural magnificence did the chiefs of the Mancunians live, when Agricola first urged them to reside near the station. From this state of rural magnificence did Agricola induce one of them to depart, and to build the town of Mancunium. Attended by his train of followers, he relinquished his abode either upon the airy sandy heights of Pilkington, upon the brawlings of the sylvan Roche, or along the mountain ramblings of the pastoral Irwell, and settled with his clan upon the northern bank of the Medlock ".

¹ Cæsar p. 120 and Diodorus p. 352 of the Gauls, and Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. xii. and Ossian vol. I. p. 136 &c. of the Britons.—² Ossian vol. I. p. 157 &c.—³ Ossian vol. I. p. 99, 129, &c. and vol. II. p. 183.—⁴ Ossian vol. I. p. 136 and vol. II. p. 71.—⁵ Ossian vol. II. p. 36, and Mona p. 89 and 246.—⁶ Ossian vol. I. p. 110.—⁷ Ossian vol. I. p. 99, 165, and vol. II. p. 222.—⁸ Ossian vol. I. p. 72, 240, 16, and 27, and Pegge's Coins of Cuno-beline class 4. N^o 1. and 3.—⁹ Ossian vol. I. p. 15 for Caledonia. The same mode of cookery was practised in Ireland, and is still in some measure retained by the present Highlanders on their hunting parties; see Critical Diff. p. 132.—¹⁰ Cæsar p. 89, Diodorus p. 350 of the Gauls and 357 of the Spaniards, and Strabo p. 305.—¹¹ Vossius de Vitiis Semp. in Curmi, and Camden p. 419.—¹² Diodorus p. 24.—¹³ Diodorus p. 350, Strabo p. 233, and Vossius and Camden ibid. See also a Note below.—¹⁴ Ossian vol. I. p. 139 and 168.—¹⁵ Dio p. 1280, *ἐκ τῆς νόμης καὶ θυγατρὸς ζῶντες*.—¹⁶ Ossian p. 116. vol. I. and Richard p. 32. Mr. Macpherson vol. I. p. 74 is inclined to think, that the Britons of Caledonia generally drank wine in the time of Fingal. But this is utterly incredible; and p. 116. vol. I. entirely refutes the

notion. Speaking of cups studded with gems, the translation says thus, "*The BLUE Water trembles on their stars and seems to be sparkling Wine.*" This sufficiently proves the Caledonians to have been acquainted with wine, but to have generally drunk a different liquor. What idea however the ingenious translator annexed to the words *Blue Water*, it is not easy to conceive. *Curmi*, the British word for Ale, may signify also Blue Water, *Curm* meaning Blue and *Ui* Water. And *Curme* is now the Highland word for a Great Feast (*Crit. Diss.* p. 329). This therefore was undoubtedly the word in the original; and the translator, not adverting perhaps to the particular meaning of his author, or not acquainted with the explaining passages of the antients, has put down the one signification for the other. And this among other reasons induces one strongly to wish, that the truly spirited translator would either publish the originals or deposit them in some public library. See Preface to vol. I.—The true word however for Ale (as appears from the names *Cæl-ia*, *Cær-ia*, *Cer-visia*, and *Cur-mi* or *Cur-wi*) is compounded of *Ui* or *Uis* Water, and of *Cæl*, *Cer*, and *Cur*, all one and the same word; and importing Strong; *Gar*, *Ger*, or *A-kar* signifying literally Sharp or Rough: See Baxter in *Garionenum*, and Catalogue under *Eager* in *B. H.* ch. vi. f. 2. — "Diodorus p. 4, 41, 242, and 248, and *Offian* vol. I. p. 74 and 116.—" *B. II.* ch. iii. f. 2.

III

UPON the settlement of the neighbouring *Sistuntii* in the immediate vicinity of the Roman station, such parts of the wood of *Arden* as closely skirted the site of the town must have been instantly cleared away. This was an employ with which the Mancunian ambassers were sufficiently acquainted, and for which they were sufficiently provided with instruments. The Britons, as I shall shew hereafter, had large forges and many artists employed in them. Furnished therefore with the requisite weapons from the

the farmhouse of their chieftain, they proceeded to the necessary business of destroying the immediately surrounding woods and of opening a sufficiently ample area.

Loud sounds the axe, redoubling strokes on strokes;

On all sides round the forest hurls her oaks

Headlong; deep-echoing groan the thickets brown,

Then rustling, crackling, crashing, thunder down.

The actual site of the present Manchester must have been now first cleared of its venerable oaks. The region directly around the present Manchester must have now first felt the hand of cultivation. And both must have soon presented to the eye a gaily mingled scene of pastures meadows and corn-fields, finely contrasted by the gloomy majesty of the encircling woods.

The useful arts of agriculture had been successfully prosecuted among the Romans. This the variety of their writers upon the subject sufficiently attests. And the same arts had been as successfully pursued by all the tribes of the Gallic and by many of the British Celtæ. Of this the many particulars which the antients have mentioned concerning both are a sufficient evidence. But as the Celtæ varied from the Italians in some particulars of their rural conduct, the two different modes of management composed two distinct systems of agriculture. Of these the Britons of Mancunium might be naturally expected to have adopted the Roman. But they actually adopted the Celtic. The latter had been long tried in these northern climates, had been long approved by their brethren of Gaul and South-Britain, and was therefore supposed to be best adapted to the northern latitude of Lancashire.

Among the various manures with which the Roman farmers enriched their lands, they were totally unacquainted with the use of marle. The Celtæ of Britain and of Gaul were the first that had marked this unctuous clay in the bosom of the earth, and the first that had drawn it out and applied it to the purposes of agriculture. This they had found the most forceable and lasting of all manures, and had given it the honourable appellation

lation of Marrow, Marg, Margil, or Marl'. This they had even the credit of recommending to the Greeks, who had a communication with both through the colonists of Marseilles residing in the country of the one and trading to the natives of the other'. And this was distinguished into two sorts, the rough and the rich, both equally discriminated in the handling, and both greatly useful either for the corn-field or the grass-land'. And many other sorts were classed under both, the white tophaceous and the red or smoke marle under the former, and the white the pidgeon and the sandy marle under the latter'. The white tophaceous was reckoned infinitely fruitful upon corn-fields, if it was gathered from a springy soil, and was thought to burn the ground, if it was laid upon it in too great a quantity'. The red was mingled with gravel-stones, and was thought to be seasoned with salt, but was not half so heavy in the carriage as the others, and was spread in a thin coat upon the ground'. And both retained their fructifying influence for fifty years together upon corn-fields meadows or pastures'. The white was the principal of the rich marles, and was subdivided into several sorts, the very biting the silvery and the fat marle; the second being the favourite of the Britons, and the soft unctuous chalk of our Kentish farmers at present, and lasting eighty years upon the ground''; and the third being particularly used for grass-lands, often producing a good crop of grass upon corn-lands betwixt the end of the harvest and the commencement of the seed-time, and lasting thirty years''. The pidgeon marle was collected at first in hard stone-like glebes, but by the force of the sun and the power of the frost was dissolved into very thin and slender flakes, and was equally useful as the other''. The sandy marle was never used for any but the swampy ground, if any other could be got, and was preferred to every other for that''. And as the dry marle was laid upon the moist lands, the fat upon the dry, and either the silvery or the pidgeon upon lands of a proper temperature; so was every species ploughed into the ground, was mingled with a little dung, and produced no crop till the first year afterwards''.

This account of the Celtic manure clearly points out to us the industrious researches, the minute discriminations, and the accurate knowledge of the Celtic farmers. And of these the British appear to have been the best, as they chiefly had marked the superior excellence of the silvery marle¹⁵. Both the Gallic and the British farmers had made the discovery of several of these marles just a little before the conquest of Lancashire¹⁶. And the knowledge of this incomparable manure and its several kinds the Britons of the midland regions must have previously adopted from the southern, and have now communicated to the Britons of Mancunium. The Siltuntii now first opened their inexhaustible treasures of marle, and pursued the spreading veins of it in the ground, not following them, as the Britons of the southern countries were obliged to follow them, and as we now trace the veins of coal, not enlarging their quarries from a narrow mouth above to an ample cavity below¹⁷. In France, where the marle generally sinks eighty or ninety feet beneath the surface, and in South-Britain, where the unctuous chalk was denominated the silvery marle, such a mining process would be absolutely necessary and is still pursued in both. But the genuine marle of Britain lies much nearer the surface, seldom more than seven or eight feet below it, and commonly about three or four only. And in our own county particularly this beneficial manure is commonly found about two or three feet only beneath the level of the ground, and must therefore have been always pursued, as it is still dug, to the depth of as many yards only. And the marle-pits which the Mancunians now made, and which were for ages probably the common marle-pits of the Mancunian precincts, appear pretty certainly to have been those large cavities upon Shudehill and in Marketstreet-lane which are now called, and have been for centuries denominated, THE DAUBHOLES or the quarries of marle. The original quarries were certainly near to the town, because the precincts at that time extended only a little way from it. And these remained very lately in their original condition of marle-pits, and appear sufficiently from the

empha-

emphaticallness of their name to have been always the most remarkable about the town.

This manure was peculiarly adapted to the strangely contrariant nature of the Mancunian soil, which is a compact clay, a light morass, a strong gravel, or a deep sand. This manure must have been now first introduced into the precincts of the town, where it is still the one principal manure of the lands and the one principal cause of their great fertility. This manure must have been now first introduced into the county, where and in the adjoining Cheshire the use of it is better understood than in any other part of the kingdom, and in both which it has changed the broad extent of our barren heaths and turfy mosses into some of the best lands within them.

There were two sorts of scythes that were used at this period in Europe, the one called the Italic or Roman, and the other denominated the Gallic or Celtic. The former of these was a short one, like our present sickle, and, like it, was managed by the right hand alone. The latter was a large one, like our present scythe, and, like it, was managed by both hands together. The Britons of Mancunium preferred the Celtic to the Roman scythe, and first introduced it among us at this period. There, as all over the kingdom, it has continued to the present moment. There, as all over the kingdom, our present farmers still continue to act upon the model of the Celtic husbandmen, to cut the herbage at a distance from the ground, and to leave a considerable remainder behind.

These are two distinguishing particulars which the Mancunian Britons adopted from their brethren of the south, And from them they seem also to have derived the knowledge of the swinging flail and of the watery whetstone. The only expedients among the Romans for the separation of the grain from the straw, in the reign of Augustus, were either to trample the corn with cattle or to press it with the tribulum. And the use of the flail was first introduced into Italy about the period of the first Roman conquest in the south of Britain. The colonies of the Belge

and the tribes of the neighbouring Britons must therefore have already adopted the Gallic instrument of threshing: and whatever they had adopted in general the more northerly Britons appear to have faithfully copied from them. This instrument however was pretty certainly the flail; and it was pretty certainly introduced into Italy from Gaul. The Romans had considerable connections with Gaul in the matters of agriculture". Such an implement was the more likely to be invented in Gaul, as the Gallic farmers generally cropped only the ears of their corn, and as the tribulum or the cattle were found less effectual upon these than the flail". And when the flail was first introduced among the Romans, it was used only as the Gauls would have used it, only upon such corn as had been reaped in the Gallic manner". The Romans had formerly imported their whetstones at a considerable expence from the isle of Crete, from Laconia, and from other equally distant places. And as these were of no efficacy without the assistance of oil, the Italian haymaker was obliged to carry constantly an horn of oil by his side. But, some little time before the conquest of Lancashire, Italy was found to produce very excellent whetstones, which were equal to a file for the purposes of sharpening, and required only the assistance of water. Such however had been long used by the Gauls, and were denominated Passernices among them". And such must have been equally used by both the ruder and the more civilized Britons, for the sharpening of their axes their daggers and their swords, and for giving a finer edge to their razors". These might the Mancunians have easily procured in the vicinity of the town and in the vale of Saddleworth. And one of them was actually discovered about sixty years ago at Craven in Yorkshire, as another was found about seventy years ago in a moss within our own county. The latter was accompanied by an axe-head of copper, and the former by an axe-head of polished marble and one or two instruments of pointed bone; and both the one and the other were thereby evinced to be equally British with all. The British bone which was found in our own county was a stone of a very uncommon species.

cies. And the hone which was discovered in Yorkshire was a blue-grey stone three inches in length, nearly one in breadth, and an eighth of an inch in thickness²⁷.

Thus the Gallic system of husbandry, which must have been originally pursued by the Gallic Belgæ of the southern shores, which had been successively transmitted from them to all the successively civilized tribes of the natives, and which had therefore before the year 79, extended into Staffordshire Derbyshire and Yorkshire, was now brought from those counties into Lancashire. And the sorts of grain which were now introduced with it must have been only such as the farmers of Gaul and the southern and midland nations of Britain had previously known. Barley, long familiar to all the various tribes of the Celtæ, and previously imported for the use of the Sifuntian breweries, must have been now raised as the breweries were continued among us. And the wheat was not of the Italian sort, white and heavy, but of the Gallic, red and light. This was originally the peculiar produce of Gaul, but must have been long accustomed to the soil of Britain, and still continues to be the only wheat of Lancashire; being then called by the natives of both Breac Brac or red-coloured²⁸.

The flour of this wheat was first refined by the horse-hair sieves which the Gauls originally invented, and our Mancunians continued to use within these fifty years, and was then kneaded into bread²⁹. That lightest and properest aliment for the human body had never hitherto been tasted in all probability by the Britons of Lancashire, and was now first introduced into the present parish of Manchester. And the Brac was remarkable for the neatness of its grain, and for yielding near a fourth more of flour from any common quantity than any other species of wheat³⁰.

The loaves of the Romans were very various, molded into different forms, and composed of different ingredients. And about the time of Agricola's entrance into Lancashire a new sort of loaf had been introduced at Rome, which was formed only of water and flour, and was much esteemed for its lightness.

ness. This was called the water-cake, or the Parthian loaf, the former name being given it from its simple composition, and the latter from its original inventors. But even this was not comparable to the French or the Spanish bread for lightness. The use of Curmi and the knowledge of brewing had acquainted the Celtes with an ingredient for the composition of bread, which was much better calculated to render it light and pleasing than the leaven, the eggs the milk or the wine-mixed honey of other nations. This was the spume which concreted on the surface of their fermenting liquor, which they denominated Burm, and which we denominate Burm Barm or Yest. This the Celtes of Gaul, of Spain, and most probably therefore of South-Britain, had long used; and their bread was in consequence of it superior in lightness to that of any other nation in the world. And the use of this ingredient must have been now first introduced among the citizens of Mancunium, as it has continued uninterruptedly among them to the present moment".

¹ B. I. c. ix. f. 2.—² Pliny lib. xvii. c. 15. and lib. xviii. c. 30. and Palladius lib. vii. c. 2.—³ Pliny lib. xvii. c. 6. But it is called Margil in Gallick (Baluzius tom. ii. C. 188.), Marla in Irish, and Marle in Welch.—⁴ Pliny c. 6. Gallia et Britannia invenere, and c. 7.—⁵ Pliny c. 7.—⁶ Pliny c. 7. and c. 8.—⁷ C. 7.—⁸ Ibid. ⁹ Ibid.—¹⁰ See some of these quarries of the silvery marle in Camden p. 236 (Kent) and in p. 318 (Essex).—¹¹ C. 8.—¹² Ibid.—¹³ Ibid. ¹⁴ Ibid.—¹⁵ Ibid. Hæc maximè Britannia utitur.—¹⁶ C. 7. Duo genera fuerant, plura nuper exerceri coepta proficientibus ingeniis.—¹⁷ c. 8.—¹⁸ Pliny lib. xviii. c. 28.—¹⁹ Ibid.—²⁰ Virgil's Georg. lib. i. 164. and Varro de Re Rusticâ lib. i. c. 52.—²¹ Columella lib. ii. c. 21. Baculis excuti, and melius fustibus tunduntur, and Pliny lib. xviii. c. 30. Perticis flagellatur. This however had been long used in the East (Isaiah xxviii. 27. &c.)—²² See Pliny lib. xvii. c. 15. lib. xviii. c. 30. &c.—²³ Pliny lib. xviii. c. 30. Palladius lib. vii. c. 2, and Columella lib. ii. c. 21. *Ipsæ autem Spicæ* melius fustibus tunduntur.—²⁴ Columella lib. ii.

c. 21.—" Pliny lib. xviii. c. 28. and lib. xxxvi. c. 22.—" Cæsar p. 89.—" Dissert. prefixed to Hearn's Leland vol. iv, Leigh's Lancashire b.i. p. 18. and b.iii. p. 181, and Montfaucon's *L'Antiquité Expliquée* tom. v. p. 195 for some weapons of sharpened bone discovered in a Gallic sepulchre and among Gallic weapons upon the continent. See also a draught of the Lancashire whetstone in Tab. iv. N^o 2. of Leigh. It was found in a moss at Sawick, about nine miles from Marton Mere.—" Pliny lib. xviii. c. 7. *Galliæ quoque suum genus farris dedere, quod illic brace vocant, apud nos sandalum.* The Romans called it by a Latin name exactly similar to the Gallic, *Sandalum*, being the same in import as *Brac*, and both calling the wheat from its similitude in colour to the brogues or red shoes of the *Celtæ*.—" Pliny lib. xviii. c. 11.—" Pliny lib. xviii. c. 7.—" Pliny lib. xviii. c. 7. and 11.

IV.

THE town of Mancunium being now erected in our extensive Arden, and the woody circuit of it being now laid open, the several parts of the latter necessarily began to assume their several denominations. What these were we know but imperfectly, few of the British names having descended to us. The appellations of our places have been all lost. But the appellations of our rivers have been generally preserved. The little names of places are confined to a small extent of region, and are known only to a few. But rivers flow through a length of country, and communicate their names and their waters to different districts and to various associations of men. While those therefore are easily lost, these are pretty faithfully retained. Hence most of our rivers in the kingdom retain to the present hour the names which were imposed upon them two thousand years ago, and still as they flow point out that remarkable æra in our history, when the large stag of the British forests took shelter

in

in their cooling streams from the chace, or when the bold bands of the British warriors were mustered upon their banks for fight. Such are the Avons the Cairns the Tames the Tynes and the Edens of other counties; and such are the Ribble the Douglas the Lan and the Calder of our own. And thus most of our Mancunian currents received at or before this period the very same denominations with which we distinguish them at present.

The rivulet which rises in the hills of Oldham, leads its wildly-plaintive stream along the narrow bottom of the deep dale that divides Droylsden and Failsworth, Clayton and Newton, and at last winded in more silent dignity around the sylvan fortress of the Britons in the Castle-field, received a particular denomination from them, and was called Medlock or the Fair Stream. Med Mad or Mat signifies fair, and Lug Log or Loc the water. The former constitutes half the name in the famous Medway or the Roman Maqus, as the latter forms the whole of the name in the river Loxa of Scotland and in the river Logia of Ireland'. And both were formerly united together in the title of a current in Derbyshire, which, as appears from the name of the gay mountain-village on its banks, was originally distinguished by the same appellation of Matlock.

The little brook that skirts the gentle eminence of Calley-banks on the west obtained the appellation which it still retains of the Tibia or Tib. This streamlet, oozing from a small collection of water which stagnates in Newton-lane and is fed by the drainings of the contiguous fields, lingers along the side of the lane, and has almost all its waters diverted into the great reservoir of the town at the conclusion of it. Thus considerably reduced, it trickles unobserved across the road to Shude-hill and beneath a small bridge of stone, and scarcely conducts its little rill along the borders of the growing town, athwart the upper end of Market-street-lane, and across the opening into Tib-lane, but communicates its name to the latter, and a little below Calley-banks very feebly discharges its waters into the Medlock. The British denominations of our rivers have been

strangely explained in general by all the interpreters of them. And the characteristic genius of the British language has been little consulted in the explanations. I have previously shewn the British Avon to have been frequently contracted into Aun, An or Un'. And as D-avon and T-avon are both the same with Avon, so are they contracted in the same manner. The former is contracted into Dane the popular name of the Daven at Middlewich, into Danus Don or Dun the antient and present name of the current at Doncaster, into Done the name of a stream in the county of Mar, into Se-teia equally with Devana Ptolemy's name for the Dee of Chester, and into Decn equally with the Dee the popular appellation of the river at Aberdeen. And the latter is contracted into Tayne the name of a frith in Scotland, into Taune or Tone the name of a river in Somersetshire, and into Teyne the name of a current in Staffordshire. But the latter is sometimes lengthened by the præpositive article of the British language, and Y Tavona is formed into I-tuna the antient name of the Solway frith, and Tyne Tayne or Ten is formed into E-den the present similar appellation for it. The name of Tibia or Tib actually occurs in the eleventh Iter of Richard, the antient denomination of the river at Cardiff in Wales. And the name of Tibia or Tib, like the Tavee the Daff and the Diff the present varying appellation for the Tibia of Richard, like the antient Tavus and Tobius, and like the Teivi the Towey the Dove or the Dee at present, is merely an appellative, and signifies merely the water'.

The stream which bursts in many springs from a wild heath at the foot of the greater ridge of the Yorkshire hills, passes by the town of Aithron, and frets and chafes against its own obstructing bed of rock or its own encroaching shoals of gravel, till it issues into the Mersey below Portwood Bridge, was denominated by a name equally indiscriminative and exactly the same. Various are the substitutions of one letter for another in the flexible language of the Britons: and Tib Tav or Tam are the same words with the substitution of a different letter. Thus

did the puny Tib receive from the Sittuntians the same appellation as the mighty Tay. And thus did a short mountain-torrent participate the denomination of the long and majestic Thames.

These all obtained general and undistinguishing names. But others received names particular and appropriate. The little current which rises in the township of Gorton, crosses the road to Stockport, and passes along the Mo's-side, which often swells in a moment and assumes a momentary fierceness, furrowing a deeper channel for itself, and hastening in greater state to the neighbouring Irwell, was denominated Cor-aun, Corne, or Little Stream. And the same descriptive appellation was originally given to the rivulet that waters the antient Corinium, Durocornovium, or Cirencester, as it is still continued in the present half-softened denomination of the Ciren or Churn*. Such also was the brisk stream that springs at the foot of an hill in the chapelry of Shaw, pushes its hasty current by Ryton Chatherton and Blakeley, and formerly fell into the Irwell at Huntsbank. But retarded by the variety of mills upon its current, and almost stagnated by the multiplicity of dams within its channel, near the conclusion of its course it now scarcely covers the level of its deep bed, and only murmurs round the stepping-stones that sometimes stretch across its channel. Its former briskness however is plainly evinced by its present utility, by the force which it communicates to so many mills at so little a distance from each other. And from the natural liveliness of its current it acquired the figurative appellation of Iwrck, Irke, or Roe-buck; as some rivers in Wales have received their denomination from the leaping goat the rooting hog or the milkless ewe, and others in Wales and one in Shropshire, like this, from the swiftly-footed roe.

But some of our rivers must have certainly received their denominations before or during the existence of the British fortrefs, and long previously to the construction of the Roman-British town. The large and important current of the Mersey, which ranges along the confines of the parish for many miles together, must

must have received an appellation from the Britons as early as the period of the first population of Lancashire. Rambling a lively rill amid the wastes of Woodhead and the moors of Mottram, and successively receiving the Goit the Tame and the Irwell, it becomes equally rapid and deep, the mighty monarch of all the contiguous rivers, and the natural boundary of kingdoms and provinces in every period, and was aptly denominated by the Britons *Beli-sama*, the Head-stream, or the King of Currents'. In a later age, while the *Sistuntii* resided in *Mancenion*, they must necessarily have given an appellation to the river which led its waters directly against the rocky site of their woodland fortress, and which is made to sweep round the front of it in an ample curve. And as the adjoining Irwell must have equally received a denomination from the garrison, so it actually retains to this day an appellation expressive of its local relation to the fortress. Welling gently from a double fountain near the upper part of an hill betwixt Broad-Clough and Holme in Rossendale, wantoning in wild mæanders along the vale of Broughton, and wheeling nearly in one vast circle about the township of Salford, the torrent carries its waters along the western side of *Mancenion*, and was therefore denominated *Ir Gueil*, *Ir-well*, *Ir-will*, or the *Western Torrent*'. The *Sistuntii* must likewise have given names to most of the more remarkable objects around their town, to the current of the *Cornebrooke* and the eminence of *Huntsbank*, to the valley of Broughton, the *Irke*, and the *High Knolls*. This must necessarily have been the case with the precincts of the primæval *Mancenion*. And this happily serves to clear up a considerable difficulty to us with regard to the primæval fortresses of the Britons in the north.

As the rivers *Eden* and *Irthing* must have divided the *Volantii* from the *Gadeni* and the *Seigovæ*, and as the *Tyne* and the *Tippel* must have separated the *Brigantes* from the *Ottadini*, when encroachments were attempted and jealousies entertained by these northern powers, the four rivers were all naturally secured with a chain of fortresses. The *Gadeni* appear to have erected,

erected; among others, the fortress of Aballaba upon the river Irthing and against the Volantii, and the Ottadini to have constructed the more numerous fortresses of Vindolana, Procolitia, Vindobala, and Segedunum along the stream of the Tyne and against their more dangerous enemies the Brigantes. The Volantii appear to have raised the forts of Axelodunum and Luguvallium upon the Eden against the Selgovæ and the Gadeni, and the Brigantes to have constructed the fort of Gallava upon East-Allon river and against the Ottadini. These appear decisively distinguished from the other fortresses about them that carry British appellations by their vicinity to the bounding currents and by the peculiar significancy of their names. These are almost all of them planted directly upon the margin of the bounding currents. And these are absolutely all of them evinced by their appellations to have been actually the original fortresses of the Britons. Vindo-lan-a and Vindo-bal-a signify merely the Forts upon the Vents or Heights, and Lugu-vall-ium Gal-av-a and A-ball-ab-a signify merely the Forts upon the Water. Gual a Rampart is formed into Wall, Val, Bal, and Ual or Al. Hence Bala remains to the present period the Welch and Irish appellation of a town. Hence we meet with Bano-val-um or the fort on the River Bane in the Roman Chorography, and Al-teutha Bal-clutha and Alclud the Towns on the Teutha and Clyde in Ossian and in Bede, the Al-cluid of Bede being the same town as the Bal-clutha of Ossian. And as Sege-dun-um and Axelo-dun-um carry exactly the same import, the High and the Dry Town, so Procolit-ia means merely the Fortress in the Woodlands. Such in part must have been the state of the boundaries about a century before Agricola invaded the north. The boundaries of other tribes in the island were undoubtedly fortified for the same reason and lined with fortresses in the same manner. But the more numerous construction of Roman forts in these than in other parts of the kingdom, and the preservation of their names in the Imperial Notitia and the two Itineraries, have accidentally given us a more particular account of the primeval fortresses of the Britons in them. And, in the fortified state of these exten-

five frontiers, the precincts of the several fortresses must have had their particular objects all distinguished by particular names. Thus the Voluntian garrison of the previously denominated Axelodunum must have given the appellation of Goats-Head to a remarkable eminence which was in their neighbourhood, which was upon the edge of the previously denominated Tunnocelum or Solway Frith, and on which the Romans afterwards constructed the station of Gabrocentum. The Gadenian garrison of Aballaba or some nearer fortress must have given the name of Congavata or the Shelving and of Amboglanna or the Rounded Dale to two remarkable vallies in the vicinity of the fort. And the Ottadini of Vindolana, Procolitia, Vindobala, and Segedunum must have conferred the names of Ælica or Water upon a neighbouring Rivulet and of Cilurnum or the Creck upon a recess in the bank of a neighbouring stream, and have given the appellations of Hunnum Cunnum or the Height and of Condercum Cond Ar Gui or the Height upon the Water to two neighbouring eminences⁹. Thus must the striking objects in the vicinity of these British forts have been all distinguished by particular names among the Britons. These names the Britons must have imposed upon the places before the Romans had invaded their country. These names the Britons must have continued to the places when they erected their towns in the vicinity of the Roman stations. And the Romans naturally retained the one when they constructed their little chesters on the other¹⁰.

For want of the same notices as the Romans have accidentally transmitted to us concerning the British fortresses in one particular region of the north, the names of the principal objects in the vicinity of the original Mancenion are now most of them lost. And the Irwell the Medlock the Cornebrooke and the Irke are almost the only remainder of them. What the others were, however, we may pretty nearly conjecture in general from the above-mentioned names in the neighbourhood of the above-mentioned fortresses. The valley of the Roman cattle, being nearly encircled with a sweep of gently rising hills, might have received the

the peculiarly apposite denomination of Amboglanna. The little eminence of Calley-Banks might have received the name of Gun; the well-watered elevation of the Huntbank might have adopted the appellation of Conderoui; and the High Knolls might have borne the denomination of Gabrocentom. And so conferred, would these and the other names be necessarily transmitted from the soldiers of the old town to the citizens of the new, would receive an addition of others from the latter, and would be all regularly continued among the Britons of Mancunium to the last sad period of the Sifuntian possessions and to the last sad æra of the Sifuntian name".

'Richard Iter 15, Ptolemy in Ireland and Scotland, and Richard in Scotland p. 32. See also Gale p. 75, who suffered himself to be puzzled with the name. So Loch still signifies Water in Erse, being applied equally to lakes and to rivers.—' B. I. ch. v. f. 1.—³ So Dun-dee a town upon the Tay, Lan-daff and Caer-diff towns upon the Tavee, &c. And see a variety of errors in Baxter, Camden, and others, under Veratinum, Ituna, &c.—' See Baxter's strange etymology for Corn or Corinium; which makes it signify a great or principal river, in opposition at once to the true principles of etymology and to real fact. There are many rivers in England so called, but all mean and trifling, as the Corne near Ludlow &c.—' Lhuyd in Baxter p. 267 and 273.—' So the present Ribble, Rhi-bel, or King-river. So Conovius or Conway river, Con-av or Con-ui the Head or Principal Water.. And see b. I. ch. v. f. 1, which proves the Mersey of the present times to be the Belisama of Ptolemy.—' The name is written oftener Irwil than Irwel in our ancient records; and thus we have Er-in or Ireland for the same island, and Ir-wen the name of a river in Brecknockshire. And as Gueil-Gui is a Torrent of Water in Welch (see Lhuyd in Torrens), so we find the word Guill-ey in the British name of a river within the county of Caermarthen,

and Gueil-ui (Gueil-ou, as Asse rius gives it us in Vita Alfredi p. 25, Wife) or Will-y in Wil-tonshire or Wiltshire. And Wyll was afterwards retained by the Saxons for a Torrent.—* See also Al-niechmaet in b. I. ch. xii. f. 4, Baxter's various mistakes under these and similar names, and Horfeley for the fires of these towns.—* Baxter has strangely interpreted some of these names. Gun is still the name of an hill near Leek in Staffordshire.—" Magnis; Borcovicus, Petriana, Corstopitum, and Pons Ælii have all merely Roman names. See Baxter for Borcovicus and Corstopitum.—" Of the rivers mentioned and not explained in this section it may not be improper to note, that the Cam signifies the Bending and the Dou-glas the Blue-Green Water and are merely the appellatives of rivers; that the Lan is the contraction of Lug Avon or Lugaun, and means a Stream of Waters; and that the Cal-der imports the Narrow River, as Col-aun Colne and Calne before. See Mr. Baxter's mistakes in Alauna, Bremetonacis, Durolanis, Lugandinum, for the river Lan; and in Cambodunum and Lagentium for the Calder.

V.

WHEN Agricola made his first application to the chiefs of Lancashire, and urged them to unite with their clans into the little communities of towns and to settle in the neighbourhood of the Roman stations, the prejudices which they had received from education, and the pride which they took in their solitary dignity, must have naturally prevailed upon all of them at first to resist his solicitations and to neglect his rebukes. But some of them did not long either resist or neglect. By the sensible management of the legate and by his happy application to their passions, the scheme of erecting towns became the mark of affected politeness, and the desire of immediately settling in them the subject of honourable emulation. Thus was a spirit excited by Agricola, which of itself soon executed all his political designs.

figs. The new citizens quickly passed from the conveniences to the refinements, and as quickly deviated into the luxuries, of a town-life. When once the old revered associations of ideas are broken, and the full adherence to old revered customs is overcome, the natural impotence of the human mind transports it generally into the rage of innovations and the violences of excess.

The dress of the Sifuntian chiefs to this period must have been the same with the dress of the British chiefs in general, of the Celtic in France, and of the Iberian in Spain. And this is the curious delineation of it.

Equally in the chief and in the client the hair, generally yellow and always long and bushy, was turned back upon the crown of the head, and fell down in a long wreath behind. And the beard of both was suffered to grow to a considerable length, but was entirely confined to the upper lip. Both of them appeared naked in battle. And this rude custom was attended with two others, the painting of their bodies for the fight, and the wearing of a ring round their middles. On all other occasions the common people in general (as I shall shew hereafter) must have been clothed in skins, and the chieftains in particular must have regularly appeared in the one fanciful uniform of the chiefs through all the western regions of Europe.

The trunk of the chieftain's body was sheathed in a tunic, which the Britons called a Cota and we still denominate a Waistcoat, and which was plaided, was open before, had long sleeves extending to the hands, and reached itself to the middle. The lower part of the body was covered with a pair of trowsers, which the Britons called Brages or Breeches, which wrapped loosely round the thighs and legs, and which were terminated at the ancles. These also were plaided, as the British appellation of them sufficiently evinces, Brac or Brag signifying merely a party-coloured object. And these were equally worn by the Batavi of Holland and the Vangiones of Germany in the west, by the Persians in the east, and by the Sarmatians of Poland betwixt both.

Over the waist-coat and the trowsers was a looser garment, denominated by the Celts a Sag or Sack, being equally plaided with both, being of a thick strong texture, and being fastened round the body with buttons and bound under the breasts with a girdle.

Round the naked neck was a large chain, which hung down upon the naked breast; and on the middle or second finger of both hands was a ring. Both were made of gold among the chiefs, and both were made of iron among their followers. They had shoes upon their feet which must have been equally party-coloured as the rest of their dress, as they were equally with the trowsers denominated Brae or Brag and are still denominated Brög. And they wore round bonnets upon their heads.

This the remarkable dress of our British ancestors, which continued very nearly the same to the commencement of the last century among the natives of Ireland, and has actually descended to the present century among our northern mountaineers of Scotland, and which is therefore rendered very familiar to our ideas, carried in it an astonishing appearance to the Romans. And this was equally the dress of the men and the women among the chiefs of Britain. But in a few years after the erection of the Roman-British towns in the north, and in the progress of Roman-British refinements among them, this ancient dress began to be disesteemed by the chiefs of the cities, and to be looked upon as the badge of ancient barbarism. And the growing prejudices were soon so greatly improved, that, within twenty years after the construction of the towns, the British Sagum was actually resigned and the Roman Toga actually assumed by many of them.

The Roman Gown or Gown however never became universal in Britain. It must have been adopted only by the chiefs of the cities and the officers of the crown, and has therefore been transmitted to us as the peculiar robe of reverence, the ensign of literature and the mantle of magistracy. The woollen plaided garments of the chiefs having naturally superseded the linen vestures of the ambacton, the

the former were still worn by the generality of the Britons. The former must have been retained by the chiefs of the country and by the ambassador both of city and country. That this must have been really the case, appears evident from the conduct of the Gauls, who retained their Virgata Sagula and communicated them afterwards to the Franks". That this was actually the case, appears more evident from the conduct of the Britons, who must have equally retained their Saga to the last as they equally communicated them to the Saxons afterwards". And the plaided drapery of the Britons must have still displayed its sober variety of colours and its multiplicity of little dies in the streets of Mancunium, and have formed a pleasing contrast to the dress of the chief, the uniformly darksome mantle of the Italian climes".

The Romans therefore appear plainly not to have fostered any prejudices in the Britons against the habits of their fathers, or to have endeavoured, with the policy of the Tartar conquerors of China, to assimilate the natives to themselves in the distinguishing exteriors of dress. The general dress of the nation was actually British, improved only with some additions from the Roman wardrobe. The British chiefs, like the Gallic, certainly retained their antient ornament of chains". The Britons in general must assuredly not have adopted the scanty protection of the Pileus or the spreading umbrella of the Petasus as a covering for their heads, but must have continued their own Kappan Hata or Boined in use, as they have transmitted the same coverings to us under the same appellations". The Britons must have retained the tunic of their ancestors, the long-sleeved waistcoat having remained among us nearly to the present period the general dress of the nation, and still continuing the general ordinary dress of our Mancunian rustics at present". The Britons, like the Gauls, must have preferred the structure of their own shoes to that of the Roman, still making them frequently of hides and nearly in the form of our present half-boots, still denominating them Bottasen Butais or Botes, and leaving the name and the shoe to their brethren of Armerica and Wales and

to their conquerors the Saxons of England ". And the Britons must have kept their antient trowsers, as they afterwards communicated to the Saxons their own appellation of Brages or Breccies for them. But the Britons must have certainly borrowed some additions to their native dress from the fuller wardrobe of the Romans. They must now have worn that interior garment which the Romans called Subucula and the Britons denominated a Sguird Skirt or Shirt ". This at the beginning of the Roman residence among us was not composed of the soft smooth substance of linen, but was merely a white jacket of flannel ". And this must have been generally worn in the nation, as it remains to this day the shirt of some peasants in the more northerly parts of England. But as the Roman ladies always wore subuculae of linen ", their conduct would naturally be followed at last by the gentlemen; and a garment so promotive of bodily elegance, and so productive of bodily complacencies, would be common to both. The gentlemen at Rome had accordingly adopted it before the close of the third century, and at the commencement of the fourth it was become universal ". And familiar in Britain before the departure of the Romans, it was retained by the Britons of the tenth century and communicated to the Saxons and to us ". Stockens are also another article in the dress of the Britons which must have been derived from the Romans. The use of stockens was introduced among the Romans about the conclusion of the commonwealth, and Augustus is the first person that is mentioned to have worn them ". It was late before that useful and agreeable habit was originally contrived, and it was long before it was universally adopted. But it must have been adopted by the Romans in Britain, and it must have been copied by the Roman-Britons, as it was denominated by the latter both Stoka and Hofan, and as it was communicated to the Saxons under the British appellation of Stockens or Hosen ". And in consequence of this introduction of stockens the brages must have been greatly abridged of their customary length, and have been naturally reduced to the form of our present breeches ". But the stockens must not have

have been very commonly worn by the populace of the provinces, as may plainly be collected from the mode subsisting among the lower natives of Valentia and even occasionally followed by the peasants of Manchester at present. And with this miscellaneous dress, partly Roman and partly British, the provincials certainly retained the distinguishing custom of their ancestors, and still streaked all the naked parts of their bodies with paint. The whole united corps of historians and antiquarians have indeed supposed and asserted the direct contrary: but they have supposed it without authority, and they have asserted it against proof. We shall hereafter find the Saxons retaining this extraordinary custom in the highest advances of their civil refinements and to the final period of their empire. They could not have imported the custom with their colonies from the banks of the Elbe, this Indian fashion being absolutely and utterly unknown to all but the Arians in Germany. And they must therefore have certainly received it, they are expressly declared to have actually received it, with many other modes of personal decoration, from those provincial Britons over whom they triumphed and among whom they settled in the island.

A body of men just emerging from a state of real or supposed barbarism, and copying the real or supposed refinements of their neighbours, will never proceed with a sober discretion and a sensible discrimination. The association of vicious with refined manners is easily avoidable in speculation, and yet it was never avoided in practice. The city-chiefs, copying the refinements of the Roman politeness, copied also those wretched accompaniments of all refinements, indulgencies which relaxed the body and softnesses which unbraced the mind. The robust and hardy Briton, whose nerves had been strung by the healthful energy of toil, now either repaired to the sulphur-tinctured springs of Buxton, or bathed in basins of artificial warmth, and wallowed in gentle indolence amid the relaxing waters. The robust and hardy Briton, whose blood had been purified by a healthful simplicity of diet, now mimicked the elegance of the Roman tables. And the plain honest Briton now raised the pillared portico on high,

high, and affected the luxury of an airy saunter in a walk of state."

These however are striking evidences of the speedy growth of civility and the rapid progress of politeness among the natives of the north; of a civility which must have been more and more widely diffused, and of a politeness which must have been more and more greatly refined, through the course of the subsequent ages. And in all these improvements the mind must necessarily have shared. The sons of the chiefs were now taught to expand their views beyond the little circle of an hunting life and the recent details of a traditionary history, and to enlarge their minds with acquisitions of knowledge. Their connection with the Romans now put into their hands the great volume of human literature, the history of man and the assemblage of the sciences; and they determined to read it. The difficulties of the Roman language gradually sunk before them, and the unknown worlds of science lay open to their view. They entered, seized the literary treasures of antiquity, and, for the first time, introduced them into the regions of the north. Nor did they rest here. The luxury of study and the pride of intellect soon led these new votaries of learning from the useful and the instructive to the ornamental and the pleasing branches of Literature. They invaded the fairy regions of classical taste. They studied the purity of the Roman language. And they cultivated the graces of the Roman compositions."

* *Honoris emulatio pro necessitate erat.* Agric. Vit. c. 21.— Strabo p. 309. Dio p. 1003. Diodorus p. 351, and Cæsar p. 89.—* Cæsar p. 89, and Ossian vol. II. p. 15 &c.—* B. I. ch. xi. f. 1.—* Cæsar p. 89; Diodorus p. 353, speaking of some Gauls that still continued to fight naked; the general Account of Historians reduced to a consistency; and Herodian lib. iii. c. 47. The custom of fighting naked among the Britons was so far retained by their descendants the Highlanders of Scotland, that even as late as the battle of Killcranky the latter threw off their plaids and short coats and fought in their shirts (Macpherson's

son's Crit. Diff. p. 164.)—⁵ This is called *χιτών* by Dio p. 1003. speaking of Bunduica, and by Diodorus p. 353. speaking of the Gauls, is said by the former to be *παμποικίλος* or all variegated, and is declared by the latter to be *Χρωμασι παντοδαποῖς διηριθμισμένος* or flowered with various colours in divisions. And see Strabo p. 300.—⁶ Martial lib. xi. E. 21. of the Britons, Diodorus and Strabo (ibid.) of the Gauls, and Himerius in Photius's Bibliotheca c. 1135. Rothom.—⁷ See Ossian vol. I. p. 210, a Note, and Critic. Diff. p. 166.—⁸ Vossius de Vitiis Serm. in Braccæ.—⁹ Dio p. 1003 and 1004, Diodorus and Himerius ibid., and Strabo p. 233 *αὐθιός*, p. 265, and p. 300. Sagum (says Varro) is a Celtic word; and Saic signifies in Celtic a Skin or Hyde, the original name probably of the antient dress (Critical Diff. p. 166).—¹⁰ Dio of Bunduica p. 1003, Diodorus p. 351. of the Gauls, Herodian lib. iii. c. 47, and Pliny lib. xxxiii. c. 1.—¹¹ See the figure of a North-Briton upon a Roman monument in Horseley N^o. 3 of Scotland.—¹² See Camden p. 707. edit. 1607.—¹³ Diodorus p. 353.—¹⁴ Dio of Bunduica.—¹⁵ *Inde habitus nostri honor & frequens toga* (Tacitus c. 21).—¹⁶ See an old author in Baluzii Capitularia c. 741. tom. II.—¹⁷ See b. I. ch. vi. f. 1.—¹⁸ Martial l. xiv. E. 129.

Roma magis fuscis vestitur, Gallia rufis.

From this passage, as well as from the secondary sense of the word Brac or Brog, signifying Rufus or Red in the brac or red wheat mentioned before, the red, and not the blue, appears to have been the predominating colour in the Celtic garments. Dr. Macpherson's tradition therefore (Crit. Diff. p. 166) must be as wrong as his application of Claudian is unjust. Cæruleus or Blue (as Cæsar assures us p. 89) was the favourite colour, not of the British cloaths, but of the British paintings upon their bodies. And for that reason Claudian gives Britannia a Cærus or blue garment,

Cujus vestigia verrit

Cærus, oceanique æstum mentitur, amictus.

—¹⁹ Evans's Welch Poems 1765 p. 72. Eurdorohawd, and p. 78.

—²⁰ See Suetonius p. 82. Oxon. 1690. *Solis—ne hiberni quidem*

H h

patiens

patiens [Augustus] domi quoque non nisi Petasatus sub Dio spatiabatur, and Montfaucon plate 15. tom. III. L'Ant. Expliquée.—" And see Montfaucon ibid. c. 17. He there mentions some antient representations of Roman Gauls discovered in France, the sleeves even of whose gowns thus reached to the hands.—" So the shoes of the Gauls in plate 47 and 48 of Montfaucon tom. III. all cover the foot entirely and reach up to the calf. And see Howel Dha lib. i. c. 39. A. 5.—" The lower half of the female gown is called a Skirt to this day in Lancashire.—" Hieme Augustus—Subuculæ thorace laneo—muniebatur (Suetonius p. 82), and Horace lib. i. Ep. 1.—" Pliny lib. xix. c. 1.—" Hist. Aug. Scrip. p. 128. Paris; *Boni* linteaminis appetitor fuit [Alexander Severus], dicens, Si lintei idcirco sunt *ut nihil asperum habeant*, quid opus—. Here the expression, *Ut nihil asperum habeant*, plainly determines these linen garments to be worn the next to the skin, and shews Montfaucon and others to be wrong who date the original of linen shirts lower than this period.—" Howel Dha lib. i. c. 39. A. 5. where the breeches even of the court-apparitor are mentioned to have been of linen; and, if these were, the shirt must certainly have been. And see Baluzius in Capit. tom. II. c. 741.—" Augustus—Hieme—tibialibus—muniebatur (Suetonius p. 82).—" See b. II. ch. vi. f. 1. Malmesbury f. 57 (Saville's edit.) asserts the Saxons to have been *Picturatis stigmatibus cutem insigniti*.—" *Paulatimque discessum ad delinimenta vitiorum, porticus, balnea, & conviviorum elegantiam: idque apud imperitos humanitas vocabatur* (Tacitus c. 21).—" *Jam verò principum filios liberalibus artibus erudire—; ut qui modò linguam Romanam abnuebant eloquentiam concupiscerent* (Agric. Vit. c. 21); Martial,

Dicitur & nostros cantare Britannia versus;

and the Romans appear in Dio p. 1007. to have early introduced the submitting Britons to an acquaintance with general history.

VI. WHILE

VI.

WHILE the northern Britons were thus happily adopting the elegant refinements of the Italian politeness and thus happily catching the ingenuous spirit of the Roman literature, the precincts of Mancunium must have been divided into farms. These assuredly were large and extensive, as such certainly were the farms of the Gallic husbandmen ¹. And houses must have been necessarily erected for the management of them, the first farm-houses that arose in the neighbourhood of Mancunium. They must have been generally raised upon the convenient border of a stream, upon the edge of Shooter's Brook, along the high sloping bank of the Irke, and on the bending margin of the Medlock. And in them and their adjoining offices must all the concerns of the farm have been transacted.

The milk of the primæval Britons had not only furnished them with an agreeable liquor, but had long been formed into an agreeable food ². Butter was utterly unknown to the Romans: and to a mind delighted with the history of human manners it is curious to observe the terms in which one of their writers describes it. He says, that it is the spume of the milk, that it is more concreted than what is denominated the butter-milk, and that it has the nature of oil in it ³. This food was highly esteemed by the tribes of the Celtæ, and the use of it was entirely confined to their chiefs ⁴. And the Celtic process in making it was essentially the same as it remains to the present moment ⁵.

To these the Mancunians must have now added a third species of milky food, and must now for the first time have understood the art of manufacturing cheese ⁶. The cheeses which were most in estimation among the Romans of this period were the Gallic, and particularly such of them as were made at Nîmes and in two villages of the Gevaudan. These were calculated only for immediate use ⁷. And so calculated undoubtedly were the cheeses of the Britons, which the Belgic colonists had been long

accustomed to make, and which many of the nearer Britons had been long instructed to make after them⁸.

The Britons must in all probability have previously planted bee-hives near the abodes of their chiefs, the mountain-bees being translated in colonies with their queens from the inmost woods, and meddyglin or metheglin being made of their honey⁹. The Britons must assuredly have planted them near their farm-houses at present, and have constructed these as well as other implements of that neat contexture of willows, for which they were peculiarly famous, and to which they gave the appellation of Bascaud Basket or platted work¹⁰. Such a hive was found about eighteen years ago in the wide and sullen-looking extent of Chatmois, two yards below the surface, and at the bottom of a new turf-pit. It was a cone two yards and a half in height and one in diameter at the base, and consisted not of a single hive but of four stories of hives, one hive taking up the whole of one story. It was made of unpeeled willows, and had doors large enough to admit a full-grown hand into the hives, and contained compleat combs and perfect bees within them. Both the combs and the bees soon mouldered into dust upon the admission of the air to them. But one remarkable observation had previously forced itself upon the unintelligent mind of the discoverer, that the bees were not of the same size as the present, but very plainly of a larger body¹¹.

Near the house must have been the clamours of domestic poultry, parading in companies about the extensive precincts of it, and speaking the natural effusions of animal contentment. These the Mancunian chieftains had kept around their seats before, not at all, for the purposes of food, but for the mere satisfaction which they had in their social aspect and for the mere pleasure which they received from their domestic notes¹². Near the house must also have been the garden of it. Such the Britons of the southern counties had laid out near their houses before¹³. But at this period, and for many centuries after it, the European garden was the flower-garden the orchard and the kitchen-garden of the present times all united in one. The
flower-

flower-garden must have been little cultivated at first. The few native flowers of the island were easily collected as they chequered the skirts of our woods or painted the slopes of our hills, and were translated into the irregular flower-plots of the Mancunian garden. But the kitchen-garden and the orchard must have been more carefully attended. The wild fruits and the woodland vegetables, which had frequently afforded an occasional repast to the hungry hunter or the straying traveller, were now carefully gathered and transplanted into the precincts of the town. The carrot shoots naturally wild in Britain and in France, was originally imported into Italy from the latter, and is only altered by manure and meliorated by care". The turnip was particularly used in Gaul, and was even dispensed as a food to the Gallic cattle in winter", an application of roots which has been vainly esteemed the result of modern genius, and which is really one of the greatest improvements of modern agriculture.

The rabbit was not yet an inhabitant of the island". But the hare had always been. This animal the Britons made use of for the purposes of divination". This animal the Britons never killed for the table". But, for the delight which they took in the breeding of them, they kept numbers about the courts of their chiefs". The same numbers they must therefore have bred about the new-erected villas of Mancunium. And the idea of a hare-warren and the model of a park must have been originally derived from the primæval Britons.

The boar must have been often pursued into the toils, have been removed alive to the farm-house; and have become a serviceable animal for the uses of the table. The Sifuntian must now at least have done what the Britons of the south had certainly done before, have drawn down the savage from its native mountains, and have converted the wild ranger of the woods into the peaceful inhabitant of the farm-yard. And the Sifuntians must now have done more, as the Britons of the south certainly had", and seizing the infant brood of the boar in its den, and transferring them to the effeminating diet and the domesti-

domesticating confinement of the farm-house in their tender years, must have softened their tempers with greater success and have provided for the table with greater certainty, the original stock being perpetuated by a regular succession, and the original nature being lost in a few descents.

At a greater distance must have been the spreading circuit of the meadows corn-fields and pastures. The pastures, enlivened with the sweepings of the town and the marle of the Daub-holes, must have put on a better covering of their own native grasses, and have been more gayly painted with their own native flowers. And the meadows must have been considerably enriched with the foreign Trefoil, the one only artificial grass of the Romans at this period". The former must have been filled with flocks of sheep and herds of cattle. Here and there must have appeared little hovels among them, in which some Ambacton must have regularly watched with their attendant mastiffs, for the nightly protection of both against the inroad of the wolf and the boar from the neighbouring woods. And the flocks and the herds must have ranged at this period all over the site of the present town, have nibbled upon the slope of the Market-street-lane, and have grazed along the course of the Smithy-door; and the bleatings of the one and the lowings of the other must have been loudly returned by the eddying echoes of the surrounding woods".

' Pliny lib. xviii. c. 6. and 28.—' Pliny lib. xi. c. 41. 'They made curds, as well as butter of their milk; *densantes in acorem jucundum et pingue butyrum.*—It is plain from Pliny's account compared with Cæsar's p. 122, that the Germans are not meant by Pliny among the barbarians that were acquainted with butter and unacquainted with cheese; as it is from Herodotus (lib. iv.) that the Scythians, and from Strabo (p. 233.) that the Celtæ, must be. The Spaniards (says Strabo) use butter instead of oil.—' Pliny *ibid.*—' Pliny lib. xxviii. c. 9.—' *Ibid.* And see also Columella lib. vii. c. 8. *Longa vasa angusto foramine* in Pliny are evidently churns. And Pliny absurdly derives the

word Butter from the Greek *βουτ* and *τυρο* ox-cheese. The word must be Celtic, as the Romans must have adopted it from their Celtic neighbours. And Butyrum seems nothing more than Buyd Ur the Chief or Excellent Food, being appropriated (as I have observed above) to their chiefs.—⁶ Strabo p. 305.—⁷ Pliny lib. xi. c. 42.—⁸ Strabo p. 305.—⁹ Diodorus p. 350, and Ossian vol. I. p. 147. and vol. II. p. 62. Solinus c. 22. asserts the Britons of Ireland to have had no bees in his time. But the Caledonians appear from Ossian to have had them.—¹⁰ Baxter on Bascauda, And so Kauelh, an hamper or large basket in Welch, is a beehive in Cornish (Lhuyd's Compar. Etym. p. 3.).
¹¹ Another such hive was found about forty or fifty years ago in the neighbouring Linyshaw Moss.—¹² Cæsar p. 89. Gallinam et Anserem gustare, fas non putant: hæc tamen alunt animi voluptatisque causâ.—¹³ Strabo p. 306.—¹⁴ Pliny lib. 19. c. 5.—¹⁵ Columella lib. ii. c. 19.—¹⁶ Varro c. 12. lib. iii.—¹⁷ Dio p. 1006.—¹⁸ Cæsar p. 89.—¹⁹ Leporem alunt animi voluptatisque causâ (Cæsar p. 89.)—²⁰ Pegge's Coins p. 89, for a sow and pigs described upon a British coin. And see Strabo p. 301, in whose time the Gallic sows ranged abroad in the fields very large strong and swift, and as dangerous to be approached by a stranger even as a wolf.—²¹ Pliny lib. xviii. c. 28. And this is mentioned in the tenth century and in the laws of Howel Dha lib. iii. c. 2. A. 49. as then cultivated in Wales.

— Passimque Armenta videbant
 Romanoque Foro, et lautis mugire Carinis.

·VIRGIL·

C H A P. VIII.

I.

WHEN the Romans had seen their little village of hurdles and clay become the magnificent metropolis of Italy, and when they began to extend her dominions into the territories of the neighbouring powers, they did not model their new conquests as they had previously modelled their old. They instituted a new platform of polity for them, and they distinguished them by a new denomination. They now divided them into districts, they now gave them the appellation of provinces, and they now subjected them to prætors and quæstors. The island of Sicily was the first conquest of the Romans beyond the barriers of Italy, and was therefore the first of all their provinces, and received the first model of their provincial regimen. And every other of the Roman provinces was governed by its own prætor and its own quæstor. The former was appointed by the people or the emperor, and the latter was nominated by the prætor's authority only. The former was charged with the whole administration of the government, and the latter was deputed to manage the finances under him. And this must have been equally the conduct of the Romans within our own island particularly. The conquered regions of Britain were divided into six provinces, and were governed by six prætors and six quæstors. Each province formed a distinct government of itself, and each was governed by a distinct prætor and quæstor. But they all acknowledged one head within the island, and were all subject to the one authority of the proconsul the legate or the vicar of Britain.

For

In our own province of Maxima, the prætor constantly resided at York. There, in the capital of the province, was the mansion-house of the prætor, and it was denominated Palatium or Domus Palatina by the Romans¹. In this was assembled the principal court of justice; in this judicial determinations were made by the prætor; and in this the imperial decrees and the prætorial edicts were promulged by his ministers. And other courts must have been opened under his commission in the other towns of the province, in which his deputies presided, inferior causes were determined, and the decrees and the edicts were equally promulged. Each prætor must have had many of these deputies under him, as each province had many of these towns. Britannia Prima comprized about forty towns, Britannia Secunda about fifteen, Flavia about fifty, Valentia about ten, and our own Maxima about twenty-five. Thus Britain, from the southern sea to the friths of Forth and Cluyd, had at the close of the first century about an hundred and forty towns in all. Of these the neighbouring county of Chester had four or five, Chester, Kinderton, Hanford, and others². And the county of Lancaster had eight, Blackrode, Freckleton, Ribchester, and Colne, Overborough, Warrington, Lancaster, and Manchester³.

These towns were of different degrees. They varied greatly from themselves, not merely in the rank of their civil estimation, but even in the nature of their civil constitutions. They were particularly distinguished into the four orders of towns municipal and stipendiary, of colonies, and of towns invested with the Latin privileges⁴. And as these must necessarily have been many stipendiary towns in every conquered kingdom, so were there no less than two municipia, nine colonies, and ten Latin towns within our own⁵. The generality of the British towns therefore was merely stipendiary. Such were Winchester, Canterbury, Exeter, and Lincoln, in particular⁶. Such also was our own Mancunium: and, like them, it was subject to all the provincial regimen. It was governed by a particular commandant, the deputy of the prætor, and a merely annual of-

ficer". This præfect, as ædile, must have had the whole prætorial authority over the town and its vicinity ordinarily delegated to him. But the garrison in the station must undoubtedly have been independent of him, and subject immediately to the prætorial authority. And like the prætor he had his quæstor with him, appointed pretty certainly by the provincial quæstor, and authorized to receive the taxes of Mancunium". These were officers now first introduced among us, and necessarily introduced with our towns by the Romans. By the former was all the discipline of the Mancunian polity regulated. And by the latter was all the œconomy of the Mancunian taxes adjusted.

The taxes imposed upon the provincial Britons consisted of four or five different articles. One was an imposition upon burials, which is particularly urged as a grievance by the spirited Boadicia". Another was a capitation-tax, which is likewise insisted upon by that British heroine". A third was a land-tax, which amounted to two shillings in the pound or a tenth of the annual produce in every thing that was raised from seed, and to four shillings in the pound or a fifth of the produce in every thing that was raised from plants". A fourth was an imposition upon all cattle". And all the commercial imports and exports were subject to particular charges". Such in general were the taxes of our British ancestors beneath the government of the Romans. And as they were the badges of the Roman dominion over them, they were naturally disliked by a newly conquered people. As they were embittered to their minds by the never-failing haughtiness of a victorious soldiery in general and by the native insolence of the Roman soldiery in particular, they were as naturally hated by a gallant nation. But they were by no means oppressive in themselves. They were merely an equivalent in all probability to the duties which they had formerly rendered to their own sovereigns. The amount of them was scarcely sufficient to answer the necessary expences of the civil and military establishments within the island". And the weight of them was certainly light, as the smallness of the collections at last stimulated the policy of avarice to abolish all the provincial

provincial taxes, and to substitute even the Roman in their stead."

In this general condition of our towns, some were raised above the common rank by the communication of the *Jus Latii* or the Latin privilege". This was a privilege of exemption from the ordinary jurisdiction of the prætor". And, in consequence of it, the inhabitants of a Latin town were no longer governed by a foreign præfect and a foreign quæstor, but by a præfect and a quæstor elected among themselves". A Briton was their governor, a Briton was their justiciary, and a Briton was their tax-gatherer. And every inhabitant of such a town that had borne the offices of prætor or quæstor was immediately entitled to the privileges of a Roman Citizen". These rights the Romans first communicated to the conquered Latins, and afterwards extended to all the conquered Italians. Cæsar seems to have been the first that ever carried them beyond the barriers of Italy and conferred them upon a provincial town. *Novum Comum* certainly and most probably *Nemausis* in Gaul received this distinction from him, and were perhaps the first provincial towns that received it". And this was afterwards extended to several of our towns in Britain, to *Durnomagus* or *Caster* near Peterborough, to *Ptoroton* or *Inverness*, to *Victoria* or *Perth*, to *Theodosia* or *Dumbarton*, to *Lugubalia* or *Carlisle*, to *Sorbiodunum* or *Salisbury*, to *Corinium* or *Cirencester*, to *Cataraeton* or *Catarick* in Yorkshire, to *Cambodunum* or *Slack* in Longwood, and to *Coccium* or *Blackrode* in our own county".

These were the names and these were the constitutions of the towns which were inhabited principally by the Britons. But there were others which were principally possessed by the Romans, and which had therefore a very different polity. These were colonies and municipalities.

The commencement of the Roman colonies was nearly coeval with the commencement of the Roman conquests. But the first that was planted in any of the provinces was projected by the genius of the celebrated *Caius Gracchus*, and was settled upon the site of the celebrated *Carthage*". And others were

planted upon the same principle in Britain; Claudius settling a strong body of legionary veterans at Camulodunum or Colchester, the first of all the Roman colonies in Britain; and he and the succeeding legates fixing no less than eight others in other quarters of the island, at Richborough, at London, at Gloucester, and at Bath, at Caerleon in Monmouthshire, at Chesterford near Cambridge, at Lincoln, and at Chester²⁵.

That colony was necessarily esteemed as the head-quarters of the legion, where some of the principal cohorts were lodged, where the eagle was repositied, and where the *prepositus* was resident. Such was Deva for the twentieth Valerian Victorious legion, Eboracum for the sixth Victorious, Caerleon for the second Augustan, and Glevum for the seventh Twin Claudian²⁶. And the rest must have been peopled by the other cohorts of these legions, as we shall hereafter see Caerleon, London, and Richborough all peopled by the cohorts of the second Augustan²⁷; and the tenth Antonian must have been lodged in the common stations, as the tenth legion had three stations, the twelfth five, and the twenty-second six, in Germany and in Gaul²⁸. Thus were large bodies of the soldiery kept together by the Romans, at Richborough, London, Colchester, Chesterford, Lincoln, and York along the eastern side of the island, and at Bath, Gloucester, Caerleon, and Chester upon the western, ready at once to suppress any insurrection at home and to repel any invasion from abroad. And thus did these Roman legionaries live together without any intermixture of the natives, suffering no Britons to become proprietors among them²⁹, and allowing none probably to reside with them at all but the useful traders and the necessary servants.

Beneath a government partly civil, the legionary colonists were subject to the Roman laws, were governed by their own senators or *decuriones*, and enjoyed all the privileges of Roman citizens³⁰. Beneath a government partly military, the legionary colonists undoubtedly strengthened their towns with regular fortifications and guarded them with regular watches, and undoubtedly had their names retained upon the quarter-master's roll
and

and were obliged to march at the general's command²¹. But as in a series of years the number of males in the colonies must have necessarily increased, and as they must have been all of them legionaries by birth, upon any military exigency a draught must have been made out of the colonists, and such a number levied as was requisite to the occasion. And the towns naturally assumed the names of the legions to which the colonists belonged. These frequently accompanied, these sometimes superseded, their British appellations. Thus we have Camulodunum and Glevum mentioned with the additional titles of Gemina Martia, Colonia Victricensis, and Claudia²². And thus we have Isca Legio Secunda Augusta, Isca Legio Augusta, Isca Secunda, Isca Augusta, and Londinium Augusta; Deva Legio Vicefima Victrix, Deva Victrix, and Deva Getica; and Eboracum Legio Sexta Victrix, Colonia nomine Sextæ, and Sexta²³.

It was happy for our British ancestors that their Mancunium was not, like the neighbouring Deva or the distant Camulodunum, converted into a colony. If it had been converted by Agricola in 85, by Lollius afterwards, or by any of the succeeding legates, it might perhaps have stood more distinguished in the pages of our national history, or have appeared with greater lustre in the fragments of our national antiquities. It might have enjoyed the pleasing satisfaction to gaze upon the initials of its own name glittering fairly upon a Roman coin, or to catch the whole of it just fading into obscurity upon a Roman stone. And it might have had the ravishing felicity of being classed by the British antiquarians among the cities that had possessed the privilege of a Roman mint, and of being ranked by the British medallist among the towns that had contributed to enrich his Roman collection. But the houses which our fathers had built and the lands which our fathers had cultivated would have been all seized by the rapacious legionaries, and they and their families have been obliged to abandon Mancunium for ever²⁴.

Nor would the condition of the citizens have been bettered, if the town had even obtained the highest degree in the scale of civil privileges, and been modelled like Verulam and York²⁵ into

into a municipium. The latter was certainly a military municipium: and so assuredly were both. This appears sufficiently at once from the treatment which the inhabitants of the former received from the revolted Britons under Boadicia, and which was shewn only to Colchester, a colony of Roman citizens, and to London, the residence of Roman-Belgic traders ". Verulam as well as York was a colony before it became a municipium "; and it as well as the other must have been inhabited by Roman legionaries. And both enjoyed a privilege which none of the colonies possessed, the right of exemption from the imperial statutes and the liberty of enacting their own laws ".

But Mancunium soon enjoyed all the advantages of a colony without feeling the least inconveniencies of it. The privilege of Roman citizenship must have been frequently communicated to individuals among the Britons, and was at last extended to all of them. In the towns distinguished by the Latin liberties this privilege, as I have previously mentioned, became the common right of all that had borne the office of ædile or of quæstor in them. But when philosophy and Antoninus Pius were invested with the imperial authority, these narrow restraints were taken away, and the Roman citizenship was restored to every Briton of property and worth ". It ought to have been extended to all. This Mæcenas particularly recommended to Augustus ". This humanity dictated. This policy prescribed. And the cunning avarice of a Caracalla communicated what the virtuous wisdom of a Pius should have bestowed ". By this communication the lower rank of the Mancunians was freed from a disgraceful punishment, and was no longer liable to be scourged with rods ". By this communication the higher rank of the Mancunians was delivered from a disgraceful exclusion, and was now admitted to a participation of marriages and a communion of honours with the Romans ". And by this all the citizens of Mancunium, now created citizens of Rome, were raised to a footing of equality with their Roman masters, were empowered to elect their own officers, and were at liberty to be governed by their own townsmen.

Cicero contra Verrem p. 272. tom. IV. Olivet, prima omnium provincia est appellata, and p. 135. tom. IV. Quæstore suo—and Strabo p. 1197.—² Tacitus and Notitia.—³ Spartian's Severus c. 22.—⁴ See before and b. I. ch. xi. f. 1. hereafter.—⁵ Richard p. 17—29. and Itinerary.—⁶ Richard p. 36.—⁷ Ibid.—⁸ Richard p. 36.—⁹ Κατ' ἑλός in Appian p. 443, Stephanus, 1592.—¹⁰ Ἀγορανομός in Strabo p. 285, ἡρχων in Appian ibid., and ταμίης in Strabo ibid.—¹¹ Dio p. 1004.—¹² Ibid.—¹³ Dio ibid.—and Appian p. 353 and 516.—¹⁴ Ibid. ibid.—¹⁵ Strabo p. 306.—¹⁶ Appian in Preface p. 3.—¹⁷ See below.—¹⁸ Richard p. 36. and Pliny's N. H. lib. iii. c. 3.—¹⁹ Strabo p. 285.—²⁰ Ibid.—²¹ Appian p. 443. κατ' ἑλός, and Strabo p. 285.—²² Ibid. ibid.—²³ Richard p. 36.—²⁴ Velleius Paterculus lib. i. c. 15.—²⁵ Tacitus Ann. lib. xii. c. 32. and Richard p. 25 and 36.—²⁶ Richard p. 36.—²⁷ B. I. ch. xi. f. 4. and ch. xii. f. 1.—²⁸ Antoninus p. 22 and 23, Bertius.—²⁹ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 31.—³⁰ Coloniae—jura constitutaque omnia populi Romani habent (Aulus Gellius in Noct. Att. lib. xvi. c. 13), and Horfeley in Bath.—³¹ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 31. and Horfeley b. I. ch. vi.—³² Richard p. 36, and Camden p. 323.—³³ Richard p. 27 and 36—Ptolemy—Antonine—Ravennas—and Notitia compared with its own rude map. See a great mistake in Horfeley p. 362.—³⁴ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 31 of Camulodunum, Pellebant domibus, turbabant agris.—³⁵ Richard p. 36.—³⁶ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 33. Sociorum.—³⁷ Agricola lib. v. Incensæ coloniae.—³⁸ Aulus Gellius in Noct. Att. lib. xvi. c. 13.—³⁹ Gruter p. 408. N° 1.—⁴⁰ Dio p. 674.—⁴¹ Ἑρμαῖος παύλας τῆς ἐν τῇ ἀρχῇ αὐτῇ—ἀπέδειξεν, Dio p. 1295.—⁴² Appian p. 443, and Acts of the Apostles chap. xxii.—⁴³ Gruter p. 408. N° 1.

II.

THE immediate descendants of the first great pair must have been all necessarily born beneath the controul of a monarchical govern-

government. The power of the father, being amenable to no superior authority, must have been the prerogative of the sovereign; and the obedience of the son, being challenged by no superior jurisdiction, must have been the submission of a subject. And the remoter descendants of the same pair must have been all equally born beneath the controul of the same government. The establishment of the primogeniture provided for the descent of the power, and instituted monarchy immediately succeeded to nature. Such therefore was the first polity of the first nations which history holds up to our view. And such was particularly the original polity of all the tribes of the Britons. The various nations that had planted the whole compass of our island were all distinct communities governed by distinct kings.

Many of these sovereigns were allowed by the Romans to continue in possession of their antient thrones, and to enjoy the full extent of their antient authority. They were considered as the allies of the Romans, and their dominions were not reduced into provinces. Such was Prasutagus the monarch of the Iceni. Such was Venutius the king of the Jugantes. And such was Cartimandua the sovereign of the Brigantes. But this indulgence was merely the result of temporary policy. Detached for the present from the general interest of the nation, these monarchs became the unconcerned spectators of the Roman progress. Having contributed to enlarge the power of their enemies by the desertion of their friends, these sovereigns all fell in succession after them, justly sacrificed to that desertion, and equally reduced by that authority.

But even in this condition of the island, beneath all the rigour of the provincial regimen, the sovereigns of the tribes were still allowed to remain in general. This antiquarianism has never supposed before. The reverse of this has been universally believed by the critics. But the fact is sufficiently authenticated.

Cogi-dunus of Cogi-dubnus appears undeniably from his name to have been originally the *togi* or king of the Dobuni, and

and from the additional appellation of Rex or King which is given him by Tacitus appears equally to have retained the same sovereignty under the Romans⁷. Nor was this all. He was even invested by the Romans with the sovereignty of some other states, which had probably lost the line of their princes in the prosecution of the war, and which were now subjected to the scepter of the Dobuni⁸. One of these was undoubtedly the Regni of Suffex and Surry⁹; and the rest must have been the nations that lay betwixt the Dobuni and them, the two intervening tribes of the Attrebates and the Bibroces. And this extended sovereignty over a part of Warwickshire, over a considerable portion of Buckinghamshire, over nearly all Berkshire, absolutely over all Worcestershire Oxfordshire Gloucestershire Surry and Suffex, Cogidubnus retained to the days of Trajan¹⁰, when not only these counties in particular, but when the whole extent of England and Wales, had been long molded into the form of a province.

This was allowed in the first and second centuries, and at the first modelling of the Roman conquests among us. And thus allowed at first, the British sovereigns must have equally continued through all the period of the Roman government afterwards. Accordingly we find many reguli in general within the conquered provinces of the island during the course of the third century¹¹. Accordingly we find Cunedag reigning the king of the Otadini, and succeeding to the sovereignty of the Ordovices, in the fourth century; though Otadinia and Ordovicia had both been reduced into a province three ages before, and though both of them continued members of a province to the period of the Roman departure¹². And accordingly, upon the retreat of the Romans from Britain, we see monarchs appear immediately in every quarter of the island, and the whole body of the Romanized Britons as much divided into distinct principalities as ever the primeval Britons had been, and as much under the government of distinct princes¹³.

Hence, and hence only, are the subject Britons represented by Tacitus, even in the reign of Trajan, as only brought into obe-

dience, not reduced into slavery, Domiti ut pareant, nondum ut servant". Hence, and hence only, are the colonies of the Belgæ particularly denominated by Tacitus *focii* or allies of the Romans in the reign of Nero; and even the whole country of the subject Britons is mentioned by Dio, in the later days of Severus, as *φιλία* or the region of friends". And hence, and hence only, are the Britons described by Suetonius Paulinus, the severest of all their conquerors, to be, even in their *δουλεία* or their most abject submission to the Romans, still *ελευθεροί* or possessed of their antient freedom, and still *αὐτονομοί* or governed by their antient laws".

The British sovereigns then retained their sovereignties beneath the government of the Romans, and Lancashire yet enjoyed the privilege of its antient monarchy. A king continued to preside over our Siftuntian ancestors: but he necessarily retained only a subordinate sway, and possessed only a diminished authority. The great power of life and death must have been undoubtedly taken from him, and transferred to the provincial prætor. And to guard against any exertions of this authority by the sovereign, was most probably the principal design of the tax upon funerals.

But the Siftuntian monarch must have been allowed to enjoy the whole antient extent of his civil authority. All the internal æconomy of the state must have been regulated as it was before by him. This appears very clearly from the above-mentioned assertion concerning the conquered Britons, that they were *αὐτονομοί* or governed by their own laws. And this appears more clearly from the certain continuance of the British polity among all the Britons, being derived even to the Welch of these later ages, and being observed equally in the conquered districts of *Britannia Secunda* and in the unconquered regions of Ireland".

*The descent of the crown among the Siftuntians must have been, as it always was among the Britons in general, in the course of an hereditary lineal and cognatic succession. Mandubratius succeeded his father Immanuentius in the throne of the Trinovantes,

vantes, the son of Cuneda followed him regularly in the sovereignty of the Ordovices, and Trenmor Trathal Cornhal and Fingal, father son grand-son and great-grand-son, successively inherited the monarchy of Morven for their patrimony ". And it is expressly declared by the Britons of themselves, that they were used to be governed by women as well as men, and by the Romans concerning them, that their monarchies devolved equally in succession upon the daughters and the sons of royalty ". Thus was Boadicia the queen of the Iceni and Cartimandua the queen of the Brigantes, and both in their own right ".

But this hereditary succession appears plainly not to have been absolute and inviolable. It was certainly defeasible among the Saxons, as I shall evince hereafter ". It was defeasible, I apprehend, among all the earlier monarchies of the world. And it was certainly defeasible among the Britons. The law of succession however was infrangible, not by the general interposition of the people, but by the particular prerogative of the nobles or by the single authority of the king, or rather by the concurrence of the king and the nobles together. Such it appears in the earliest institutions of the Welch and in the correspondent customs of the Irish. In that very remarkable compilation of laws which was made by Howel Dha a little before the middle of the tenth century ", and which is principally composed of the customs existing previously among the Welch Britons ", we find the king's son brother or nephew to have been the customary inheritor of the crown, and the reigning monarch or the nobles to have selected the particular person ". And in the most antient customs of the Irish Britons we see the hereditary succession very frequently superseded by the rule of Tanistry; a member of the royal family being adopted at discretion by the nobles, and denominated by the law the Tanist or the second in dignity ".

The monarchies of Britain were as little absolute in themselves as the succession to them was indefeasible in its nature. The Britons were not unacquainted, though history has never supposed them to be actually acquainted, with that proposed

restraint upon monarchical despotism, the rational the manly the free institution of parliaments. No power but the royal could either make or abrogate a public law²⁶. And fixed upon this necessary principle hangs the central balance of every monarchy. But even the king could not make or abrogate a law without the consent of the country²⁷. And grounded upon the solid basis of this maxim stands all the fair structure of popular liberty. The most antient constitutions of Wales have expressly recorded the exception. The terms of it carry sufficiently in themselves a reference to parliamentary concurrence. And we have a decisive argument for the existence of British parliaments in the prefaces to the laws of Howel Dha, the most authentic registers of the legislative authority by which they were made. We there find six men summoned out of every commot or every century in Wales, the most wise and the most powerful persons in the kingdom, in order to meet and assist the king in the great work of legislation. The parliament being assembled, by common council and consent they examined the antient laws, reformed and cancelled some, added others, and digested both into a regular code. This they presented to the king. This the monarch approved, and gave it the ratifying sanction of his own authority. And both the monarch and the senators concurred to imprecate the wrath of God, of the parliament, and of all the country upon such of the people as should violate and upon such of the kings as should abrogate any of these constitutions, unless they were annulled in a council equally national as that in which they had been recently made²⁸.

In these laws of the Good Howel the curious mind is presented with a remarkable delineation of the British court; and the striking simplicity of the draught evinces the great antiquity of the original. Upon this model undoubtedly were all courts formed at the beginning. And upon this our own in particular appears to have been actually formed. The royal mansion and its offices consisted merely of a Newadd or hall, an Yfdafell or parlour, a Bwytry or buttery, an Yfdable or stable, a Cyn-

a Cyn-hordy or dog-kennel, an Yfgubawr or granary, an Odyn oven or bakehouse, a Ty Bychan or boghouse, and an Hundy or bedroom²⁰. The fire-pan was of iron and the fuel of wood²⁰. And the bed was merely of straw, as it even continued to be in the royal bedrooms of England as late as the conclusion of the thirteenth century²¹. The king's own dress was a fantell or mantle, and a bais, tunic, or waistcoat, both assuredly of woollen, a grys or shirt and lawdr or breeches, both pretty certainly of linen, and esgidjeu or shoes, hofaneu or stockings, lewys or gloves²², and bian gapan or a cap of skins²³. And the queen's dress was nearly the same, her majesty only wearing Fflaenneu or Roman headbands under her capan²⁴. The great officers of the court were the Pen-teulu or the mayor of the palace, the Disdain or steward of the household, the Pen-hebogydd or master of the hawks, the Brawdwr Llys or court-justiciary, the Pen-gwasdrawd or the president of the grooms, the Gwas Yfdafell or the lord chamberlain, the Bardh-teulu or the court-poet, the Gosdegwr or the king's serjeant, the Pencenydd or the master of the king's hounds, the Meddyd or the king's cellarer, the Meddyg or physician to the household, the Trulliad or butler, the Drysawr or porter, the Cog or cook, and the Canhwyllyd or the curator of the lights. In this establishment of a court we see the head of the falconers and the chief of the grooms, the poet-laureat and the cook, all ranked immediately among the great officers of state. Such a rank was naturally given them in a court generally devoted, as all courts originally were, and as all in illiterate ages must ever be, to the pleasures of the feast and the diversions of the chase. So the Pincerna or butler to king Ethelwulph was maternal grandfather to king Alfred. So the master of the horse to king Alfred is mentioned in the Saxon Chronicle under the appellation of the Horse-thane. And so among the officers of king Hardicnute's court we have Str his major domo, majorem domum, or mayor of the palace, Edric his butler, Thronð his butcher, suum carnificem, & alios magnæ dignitatis viros, sent in a joint commission with Alfric archbishop of York and Godwin earl of Kent.

Kent³⁵. These all executed their distinct offices in person. It was the business of the Gofdegwr to command silence in the king's hall at dinner by striking upon a particular pillar, of the Gwas Ydafell to make the king's bed, and of the Drysawr to provide straw for all the beds and to kindle all the fires in the court³⁶. And the same establishment prevailed exactly in the English the Irish and the Scottish courts. The house of Stuart and the family of Butler are sufficiently known to have derived their appellations from their hereditary offices in the palaces of Scotland and of Ireland. The duke of Hamilton is hereditary porter to the king of Scotland, and the dukes of St. Albans and Ancafter are hereditary chamberlain and hereditary falconer to the king of England, at present. More than one manor is held under the crown of England to the present period with the special obligation on the lord to attend and officiate in the king's kitchen at the coronation, and to present the king with a dish of his own cooking. And the royal porter in England as late as the thirteenth century was expressly obliged to provide litter for the beds and to light all the fires in the palace³⁷. But the privileges of these British officers were particularly striking. They were all of them annually presented with a piece of linen and of woollen by the king and queen³⁸, and were regularly gratified besides with old cloaths from the royal wardrobe. The king's riding-coat was three times a year given away to the master of the Mews, the king's caps saddles bits and spurs became the perquisite of his master of the horse, and the chamberlain appropriated to himself the king's old cloaths and old bed-quilts³⁹. Thus the chamberlain of our own palace, even in the reign of Edward the first, by antient custom received the king's old coverlets curtains and bedding⁴⁰. And in the palaces of the Britons this principle was carried to so great a length, that even the wardrobe of the officers was in some cases inheritable by their inferiors; as the coat of the Pen-teulu devolved three times a year to the Trulliad, the Trulliad's descended to the Bardh, and the Bardh's was received by the Drysawr⁴¹. But these were not all their privileges. They had equally a right to

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stated messes of meat, when they gave any entertainments in their private apartments; the president of the palace being empowered to command three dishes of meat and three horns of the best liquor, and the master of the mews three horns and one dish ". But the latter was cautiously required to bring his cup in person to the hall at every repletion of it, lest he should drink too much and neglect his birds ". The president of the palace might require the bardh to sing to him whenever he pleased ". And if the master of the mews in the king's presence killed one of the three birds that were denominated noble, the king was bound to assist him in dismounting and remounting, and to hold his horse while he took the birds ". But if he killed the bird in the absence of the king, he was required to hasten to court, and to present the game to his majesty; and, by the etiquette of the court, the king rose up in compliment to him, or else gave him the mantle which he was wearing ".

The customary ensign of royalty for the sovereigns of the Britons must have been the imperial fillet or diadem which was common to them and to all the eastern monarchs. Tied round the royal head, it was sometimes secured upon the forehead with a cross fillet and a clasp, and was sometimes ornamented with the muscle-pearls and the sparry diamonds of the country ". It was frequently worn by the monarch immediately over his hair, which rose in one two or three rows of curls above it, and was sometimes worn upon a small close cap that just covered the head and was edged by the fillet ". But after the coming of the Romans, when the sovereignties of the island submitted to the authority of the empire, and when the monarch and his subjects adopted the manners of the Romans, the corona koron or crown must have been introduced into the island, and must have been worn by the sovereigns of our fathers. And we have a very curious and antient delineation of it upon the tomb-stone of a British monarch that reigned in the fifth century. The stone was discovered in the isle of Anglesey about the reign of Charles the second, lying no less than six feet under the ground. And as the edge of it bears a remarkable inscription to the memory of Pabo, so the plane of it exhibits the figure of the king, dressed

in his armour, grasping a scepter, and wearing a crown—the scepter being a strong weapon of iron and pointed in the form of a lily, and the crown being a circlet studded with stars and fringed with three flowers above.”

’ Genesis chap. iv. ver. 7.—’ Cæsar p. 92, Mela lib. iii. c. 6, Dio p. 957, Diodorus p. 347, Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. 15. singulos sibi olim reges fuisse, and Richard p. 15. How inconsistent and mistaken therefore are Dio p. 1280 and Richard p. 7?—’ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 31.—’ Ibid. lib. xii. c. 40.—’ Ibid.—’ See Carte particularly vol. I. p. 133, 137, &c.—’ Agric. Vit. c. 14. Cogiduno regi. And in Dio p. 957 we have Togidumnus, the son of Cunobeline, plainly appearing from the tenor of the history as well as the import of his appellation to have been the Togi or leader of the Dobuni, and dying in the defence of his dominions against the attacks of Plautius p. 958.—’ Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. xiv. Quædam civitates—donatæ.—’ See the Chichester inscription in Horseley.—’ Agric. Vit. c. xiv.—’ Porphyry in that well-known but misapplied saying, that Britain was then *Fertilis provincia tyrannorum* (Hieron. Epist. ad Ctesiphontem)—Richard p. 15—and Nennius c. 18.—’ Appendix to Nennius c. 64, and b. I. ch. xii. f. 5. Nennius brings Cunedag de regione—Guotadin into Ordovicia: the genealogists therefore are mistaken in deriving him from Cumberland (see Mona p. 146 and Carte p. 139). And Carte, who, like the other historians, verbally denies the existence of any British kings under the provincial government, virtually acknowledges it p. 139 and 163, mentioning the kings of the Ordovices. And see a great mistake in him p. 163 &c.—’ See b. II. ch. i. f. 1.—’ Agric. Vit. c. 13.—’ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 33, and Dio p. 1282. And in Galgacus’s speech (Agric. Vit. c. 31) the Romans are said to call themselves the *Amici* of the Britons.—’ Dio p. 1010.—’ Mona p. 130 &c.—’ Cæsar p. 92, Nennius c. 64, and Ossian’s Poems.—’ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 35, and Agric. Vit. c. 16.—’ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 35.—’ See b. II. ch. iv. f. 2.—’ See

— See the Preface to Wotton's edition. — " See the original Preface or Prefaces to the Laws. — " Lib. I. c. ix. art. 2, 7, and 8. — " In Ireland (says Ware) the successor was appointed by the common votes of the people (Ant. Hib. c. viii.). And see f. 3. for all below the nobles having no power or weight in the affairs of government. — " Howel Dha lib. iv. c. 65. A. 4. — " Ibid. — " See Wotton's edition. — " Lib. i. c. 47. A. 8. And compare it with the accounts of the Letty or bedrooms of the great officers. In (or, as it undoubtedly ought to be translated, over) the Neuad was the bedroom of the royal heir: There (says c. 9) he shall sleep attended by young nobles. Another great officer lay in (over) the granary (c. 15), another in (over) the odyn (c. 21), And a third in (over) the kitchen (c. 26). — " Lib. ii. c. 1. A. 6. (In many houses it was of stone, p. 362), and lib. i. c. 42. — " Lib. i. c. 18. A. 9. And see an Extract from Fleta in Note to Preface, and Camden c. 331. Gibson. — " Lib. i. c. 17. A. 6. — " Lib. i. c. 18. A. 7. and lib. i. c. 17. A. 8. — " Lib. i. c. 32. A. 2. — " Howel lib. i. c. 1, Afferii Alfredus p. 4, Sax. Chron. p. 99, and Florence of Worcester p. 623, Frankfort edit. — " Lib. i. c. 20, c. 18. A. 4, and c. 40. A. 15. — " See Extract from Fleta in Note to Preface to Howel Dha. — " Lib. i. c. 2, &c. — " Lib. i. c. 15, c. 17, and c. 18. — " Extract from Fleta in Preface to Howel Dha. — " Lib. i. c. 14. — " Lib. i. c. 12 and 15. — " Lib. i. c. 15. — " Lib. i. c. 12. — " Lib. i. c. 15. — " Ibid. — " Pegge's Coins of Cunobeline N° 3. class 2 and N° 5, class 1; Coin 15, 16, and 20, in Borlase's Cornwall b. iii. ch. xii; and Agric. Vit. c. 12. — " N° 3. class 2 and N° 5. class 1 in Pegge, and Borlase's Coins 16 and 20. — " See it in Mona p. 158.

III.

WHEN the great colony of the Sifuntii was first led into the watery plains of Lancashire, the commandant or sovereign of them, the younger son most probably of some of the more southerly kings, must have taken possession of the lands by the

privilege of occupancy, and have made them all his own. He must have then granted them out to his principal followers, assigning each of them his particular proportion, and obliging each of them to particular returns for it. And these must have continued obligatory upon the lands, and have descended to the present proprietors under the Romans. Such continued among the Britons of Wales to the sixteenth century. Such remained among the Britons of Ireland to the seventeenth.

Immediately below the sovereign ranked the equites or knights, the Uchelwyrion, magnates, or high men, holding their lands immediately from the crown, and presiding as lords over their particular domains¹. As the immediate tenants of the crown, they were obliged by their tenures to certain services to it, the express conditions of their fees, and all honourable in their natures². Some retained their lands under a tenure which strongly resembled the grand serjeanty of the Normans, the duty of attendance upon the king at dinner, and the obligation of personal services to him at it, to hold the king's feet in their bosom and to rub him with a flesh-brush³. But most were particularly bound upon summons to attend the sovereign in arms, and to follow him to the war⁴. This was denominated the Gwaeth Milwyr or the service of the soldier, being borne at their own expence whenever and as often as they were carried into the field within the limits of their own country, and once annually without them for the period of six weeks⁵. And they were bound to engage always at the call in the construction or reparation of the royal castles⁶. They were also assessed with rents either in money or in kind, but stated in their value and gentle in their amount. For a fee containing about a thousand acres of land, the knight, immediately before the commencement of winter, remitted to the king's palace an horse-load of his best wheat reduced to flour, one ox, a barrel of mead nine palms in length and eighteen in breadth, or two barrels of braget or four of common ale, and one hundred and sixty-eight equal threaves of oats for the stable, a sow three years old, a salted gammon three inches in thickness, and a pot of butter three palms long and

and three broad ⁷. But if the provision was not furnished at the time appointed, the chieftain paid in lieu of it a pound and twenty-four pence, the former payment being denominated the Twnc Punt or the Tributary Pound, and the latter being entitled Argant Y Gwynos or the Supper-silver ⁸. Beneath the reserve of these services and payments, the uchelwyr's had a full property in their lands, and could transmit them to their heirs ⁹. The lands were originally given away by the king under the limitation of these duties. The non-performance of them must have necessarily extinguished the title of the chief. And the lands reverted to the crown that gave them ¹⁰.

Inferior to these, and holding from them as lords in fee or holding as they held immediately from the crown, was the great body of the people, being esteemed, as Cæsar declares the common people in Gaul to have been reckoned, *Penè servorum loco*, and all absolutely in a state of villainage ¹¹. These were divided into the two classes of *Nativi liberi* or free villains and of *Puri nativi* or compleat villains ¹². The former were allowed to relinquish their lands or to remain upon them at their own discretion; were privileged to buy and to sell, and were charged with services the most honourable of the menial kind and all assuredly determinate ¹³. The latter were reckoned absolutely the property of the lord, disposable to any one at his will, and saleable as a part of his estate ¹⁴. The latter were bound to services the most servile and the most indeterminate, to construct and repair the lord's houses, and to execute all his drudgeries of husbandry ¹⁵. They were both subject, like the chiefs, to attendance in war and to payments in money or returns in kind. And it strongly evinces the great humanity and the free genius of these villain tenures, that both had them generally as settled and determinate as they. The villains on a fee of one thousand acres made annually two large remittances to the lord ¹⁶. One was, like the noble's, immediately before the winter, and consisted of a sow three years old, a vessel of butter three palms long and three broad, a barrel of braget nine palms in length, twenty-four equal threaves of oats for the horses, sixty-six loaves

of the best wheat that grew, if any grew, within the fee, six of them made of wheat purged from the bran, and, if no wheat was raised upon the fee, six loaves of the coarser oatmeal, equal in breadth to the measure of the arm from the elbow to the wrist, and so thick as not to bend though they were held by the margin ". The other remittance was made at the beginning of summer, and consisted of a wheather three years old, a rash of butter as large as the largest dish in the fee and a couple of the lesser palms in thickness, twenty-six such loaves as were remitted before, and a cheese composed of all the milk that all the cows within the fee could furnish in one day ". But besides these payments, both of which were scarcely equivalent even to the remittances of the knights, the villains were necessarily subject to additional impositions. The sovereign in particular retained a considerable portion of lands in his own possession, the appropriated demesne of the royalty, and denominated Loghty among the Irish ". The villains upon these demesne lands were required every year to entertain the king, the queen, and some of the great officers of state, with their attendant trains. But they were obliged to receive them only by a certain oylich cycle or rotation, and to maintain them only for a certain period ". Some were bound to entertain the king himself, to provide straw for his bed and wood for his fire, and to furnish him with mutton lamb or kid and butter cheese or milk, as long as he continued with them ". The royal court was continually ambulatory and itinerant ". And the king's domesticks were annually divided into three bodies, some of the principal officers, all the huntmen, and all the grooms; and each took its assigned quarters among the villains ". And the same rights of supremacy which were possessed by the king over the royal villains were equally possessed by the uchelwyr over his own ". But this branch of the villain regimen under both was as gentle as it was determinate, being constantly settled in proportion to the estate of the villain ". And the same sort of regimen was actually retained in the modern feuds, the tenants of the lord of Manchester in the fourteenth century being obliged to furnish the lord's sworn

bailiff

baillif and his four deputies with bread beer and other necessaries, and with provision for their servants and horses, upon notice of their arrival among them".

These were the two only ranks of the British citizens, the nobles and the villains". All below the latter were Castles or slaves, made such by the voluntary sale or the public condemnation of their persons to servitude; were sometimes denominated Ydsafellawgen or cottagers, answering to the Bordarii and Cottarii of Doomsday Book; and, like the slaves of the Saxons, were certainly possessed of some property". And both these ranks were obnoxious to the payment of an heriot upon the decease of the possessor, and to the imposition of a relief or a fine of renewal upon the succession of the heir". The estates of both these ranks paid equally to their respective superiors the maritagium or fine for the marriage of a daughter". The nobles and the villains did homage to the lord for their land, and their infants in orphanage received a tutor and guardian from his appointment". The nobles and the villains were obliged to attend their lord to the wars; or to pay him a Lloyd, an escuage, or a commutation for it". And the fee of the former was forfeited to the crown upon neglect of the services, and devolved to the crown upon failure of issue". But these payments were all, except the escuage, regularly defined by the law. The marriage-fine for an uchelwyr's daughter was an hundred and twenty pence, and for a villain's only twenty-four". The heriot and the relief were combined together under one common appellation of Ebediw, as I shall hereafter evince both to have been denominated the Heriot among the Saxons and the Relief among the Normans". And the ebediw of an uchelwyr was settled in general at an hundred and twenty pence, of an uchelwyr's villain at sixty, and of a king's villain at ninety". The royal villain must have enjoyed one third more advantage from his estate than the private. And the British nobles paid much easier heriots than the Saxon".

Such were the tenures of the lands in Wales before the English customs were transplanted into the country by the English arms..

arms. And the particular appearance of the same holdings even so early as the tenth century and in the laws of Howel Dha, holdings not formed by that great legislator of Wales, but referred by him to prior institutes and ascribed by him to the earlier Britons, evinces the great and striking antiquity of them. Such was the tenure of the lands in Wales, before the English customs absolutely superseded the native holdings of the country. And the general appearance of the same tenures equally among the natives of Wales and the aborigines of Ireland demonstrably evinces the whole curious system of polity to have been derived from the common parents of both nations, the original and primæval tribes of the Britons".

This then was the nature of our tenures in Britain and in Lancashire at the close of the first century. And they appear undeniably to have been purely military in their design and absolutely feudal in their essence. The primary institution of feuds is unanimously deduced by our historical and legal antiquarians from the northern invaders of the Roman empire; and the primary introduction of them into this island is almost as unanimously referred to the much more recent epocha of the Norman conquest. But they certainly existed among us before, and even formed the primitive establishment of the Britons. By the feudal prescriptions, and by them only, could the lands of the British chiefs have been enjoyed under the king as the supreme proprietor of all, and possessed under a baron as the immediate lord of the fee, with the obligation of military service to him or with the payment of a fine of commutation for it". The military service is the first great signature and the highest characteristic of the feudal system, and is expressly declared in some of the earliest institutes of the Britons to have been the principal service of the British fees". By the feudal prescriptions, and by them only, could the lands of the British chiefs and the British villains have been obnoxious to heriots, to reliefs, to homage, wardship, marriage-licences, and escheats. By the feudal prescriptions, and by them only, could the lord of the fee have acted as the British lords in the earliest ages acted, have taken
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the fee into his own hands upon the death of the occupant, have retained it in his own possession till the heir came to request the right or till the survivor was capable of performing the service due to him for it, have then made a formal surrendery of it again to the heir⁴, and have obliged him to pay an acknowledgment for the surrendery investiture or premier seizin of it⁵. These were all the native productions of that great principle of the feudal polity, which acknowledged all the lands of a kingdom or of a barony to have been originally held by the original concession of the royal or the private lord, which confessed the right of the primary donation to have been absolutely terminated by the death of the grantee, and which received the continuation of the grant to each successive heir as a new donation from the lord. The heriot therefore was paid upon the death of every possessor, as the lord's seizin of the whole; and other discharges were made at the renewal of the grant or the portioning of a daughter, as an acknowledgment of the lord's primary right to the whole. And the same principle, gradually operating downwards, affected the villain estates in the same manner. The British villain expressly held his land to the last, as the feudatory must have actually held his at the first, dependant on the will of his lord. But though the original tenure of villainage remained nominally the same, property gradually gained upon these precarious tenures in the villain as in the freehold estates; and the former had early begun, like the latter, to be continued for life and to descend to the heirs among the Britons. The latter were become absolutely hereditary before the age of Howel Dha, and the former were become partially so, the house descending by law, and the lands devolving by allowance, to the posterity of the previous occupant⁶. And hence only could the heriot and the relief have been the incidents equally of the freehold and of the villain lands at all among the Britons.

Such was the curious and original frame of the British tenures, a complex system of feuds in miniature, and the same in effect with the more enlarged system of the Normans. The sameness is great enough to evince the very near relation of the former

former to the latter and to the common family of fiefs. The difference is striking enough to demonstrate the descent of the former by a line absolutely distinct from the latter. The British is certainly prior in its origin to the Norman, because it is much less complicated and diffusive than it. The tenures of pure and free villainage corresponding with great exactness to the same holdings of later ages, the knights service among the Britons was actually compounded of the mixt tenures of the barony and the free soccage among the Normans."

These feudal tenures must have been derived from a very ancient and primitive origin, and must have existed coeval with the first plantation of the island. They were plainly the joint result of a colonizing and a military spirit. The former providentially animated the first ages of the Nouchide, was constantly prosecuted under the discipline of regular order and the controul of regal authority, and had whole regions to partition among the members of the colony. The latter was excited by the frequent migrations of colonists and the numerous invasions of settlements in the same ages, and naturally provided for the security of the infant colony by the institution of a military establishment. Nearly all the lands in the kingdom therefore must naturally have been charged with the feudal observances, and the only allodial lands within it must have been such as belonged to the relations of the royalty. The word Allod or Allodium has effectually baffled all the torturing disquisitions of etymology to the present moment. Like many of the kindred terms of feudalism, it has been vainly explored, I apprehend, in languages to which it never bore any relation. Like many of the kindred terms of feudalism, it is, I apprehend, neither Saxon nor Norman in its origin, but actually and absolutely British. British certainly is the characteristic term of the whole system, Feod or Feud, occurring particularly in the laws of Howel Dha, Fyd or Fud, and signifying literally and directly an estate". British certainly is the remarkable Heriot of the feudal system, the Dered of Howel Dha, the Hired of Anglesey, and the pronounced Hared of Lancashire, as the plain unwrested

unwrested import of the word, an Obit or Mortuary, sufficiently evinces of itself⁴⁸. British certainly is the famous Mercheta of the Scottish feuds in particular, which has given occasion to that fiction of folly in the best histories of Scotland, that the lord had a privilege to sleep with the bride of his vassal upon her wedding-night, which has been explained by derivations equally obscene and stupid, and which is apparently nothing more than the Merch-ed of Howel Dha, the daughter-hood, or the fine for the marriage of a daughter⁴⁹. British certainly is the feudal appellation of Villain, appearing equally in the laws of the Britons, Bilain or Filein, and signifying an Husbandman or Peasant⁵⁰. And British certainly are the two equally well-known and peculiarly feudal denominations of Baron and Manour, though both have been appropriated to the Normans, and the former, like villain, so absolutely appropriated, that the appearance of it has been even adduced as a positive argument against the authenticity of some Saxon charters⁵¹. They both occur in the antient Institutes of Wales, and Manour an hundred and twenty years absolutely before the Conquest; are written Barwn and Maenawr, and signify a Military Man and a District⁵². And Allodium, I think, is derived from the same language. Allodial land is an estate discharged from all the feudal services, and, as I have observed already, must naturally have been such only as belonged to the relations of the crown. And the estates of the Ealodeu or the members of the royal family, the children the nephews or the cousins of the reigning monarch, are all expressly exempted from the imposition of the Ebediw in the Laws of Howel Dha, and are actually the only lands in the kingdom that are favoured with such an exemption⁵³.

The prescribed mode of descent for all the noble or freehold lands in the kingdom at this period must have been by the course of the custom which is denominated Gavelkind. This antient usage appears equally in Ireland and in Wales, is recorded as early as the tenth century in the laws of the latter, and existed for ages afterward the one universal rule of inheritance in both⁵⁴. Familiar among the Saxons afterward, it was allowed to operate

only upon a small portion of their estates, upon censual lands or free soccages; but extended its influence through the whole circle of the landed property among the Britons". The whole circle of absolute property, as I have already evinced, was formed merely of one species of tenures, at once actually military and positively censual. And this species was naturally denominated among the Britons *Gafael Kinead* or the *Family Estate*. *Gafael* or *Gavel*, carrying exactly the same signification in the British as *Fyd* or *Fud*, the addition of *Kinead* or *Kind* was necessary to restrain the generality of the expression, and to distinguish the legally hereditary estate of the *Uchelwyr* from the legally undescendible possession of the *Filein*. And both together import precisely what *Feod* and *Feud* signify at present, a free tenement and its appurtenance, a noble estate and the modal circumstances of it". There were three particular prescriptions of this British institution; and all appear plainly to have been intended as improvements upon the feudal system. The inheritance of the British baron, the only freeholder in the kingdom, was divided equally among the sons, and in defect of sons among the next heirs that were males". This was calculated directly to multiply the number of the military tenants, and to provide against defects in the military services. The females of every degree, till the utter extinction of the males, were absolutely precluded from the inheritance". They were unable to perform the military services, and were therefore esteemed unfit to receive the military tenures. And, what was very extraordinary in itself, but naturally resulted from the same feudal principle of gavelkind, no distinction was made in the line of the males betwixt the *Spurious* and the *legitimate*". They were both qualified equally to execute the services of their father, and they were both admitted equally to a share in the patrimony". But though the fee was divided equally among the sons, and though the *spurious* shared it equally with the *legitimate*, yet the eldest yet the *legitimate* was considered by the law as the actual proprietor of the whole". And under this useful restriction, which continued the several branches of the original family together, and kept them

them in due subordination to the *Pen-cenedl*, the head of the family or manour, and the eldest legitimate line of the barony", this common law of inheritances was coeval undoubtedly with the commencement of the British feuds, as it resulted evidently from the same military precautions with them. Thus if the survivor of a feudatory could not immediately execute the services due to the king for the fee, it was regularly retained in the king's possession till he was absolutely able". Thus if the possessor of a fyd left one son perfect and another imperfect in his bodily functions, the former, whether he was legitimate or illegitimate, became the proprietor of the patrimony, because (as the law expressly subjoins) the latter could not execute the services due to the sovereign for the fee in the forum and in the field. Founded upon these first fixed principles of the feudal system, gavelkind continued universal in Wales and in Ireland even nearly to the present period. In Ireland, the usage was uniformly observed to the very recent and very signal epochs in its civil history, the regular settlement of the whole frame of the English polity in Ireland by the prudence and authority of James the first. In Wales, a statute of the 12th of Edward the first permitted the antient stem to continue rooted in its native soil, but lopped its two principal branches away, the admission of bastards to the inheritance and the preclusion of females from it. And a statute of the 34th—35th of Henry the eighth forever levelled the reverend trunk to the ground, all the lands in Wales being then required to be holden "as English tenure to all intents according to the common laws of this realm of England."

The law of gavelkind was confined merely to the descent of private inheritances. It did not mount up to the throne. It could not. The whole design of the institution being the better discharge of the military duties to the crown, the inheritance of the king could not possibly be affected by it. And accordingly, in direct contradiction to a fundamental principle of gavelkind, I have previously shewn one of the royal family to have regularly succeeded in the throne by a peculiar and exclusive privi-

lege. And, even in these later ages among the Irish, gavelkind was never permitted to extend its influence to the estate even of the Tanist or the immediate heir of the crown²². The estates of our Sissuntian fathers devolved by the laws of gavelkind: but the impartible monarchy of Lancashire descended by hereditary right. And from this difference the crown must have derived a very considerable advantage, virtually creative of absolute authority and subversive of all legal liberty. It could have been under no apprehension of danger, it could have been in no fear of opposition, from the greatness or the exorbitancy of an accumulated fortune in any of the barons. The lands were parcelled out at every fresh descent into a fresh variety of inheritances. And the wealth of the chiefs in a series of successions must have been broken into a thousand fragments.

Such were the feudal tenures of the Britons. And, in the continuation of them under the Romans, the obligation of attendance upon the king in his wars was still undoubtedly retained by the crown, but must have been enforced only at the command of the Romans. Prudence would certainly induce the Romans in this manner to continue the antient privilege of royalty, which could never be exercised against them, and which could so usefully be exerted for them. It would enable them upon any emergency to raise a number of soldiers, and to embody them with their own, with great facility and without expence. And had such a power of the crown been taken away from it during all the long æra of the Roman government, it would never have been recovered afterwards, and consequently could never have descended to the British sovereigns of Wales. And this seems to have been the only hardship of the Sissuntians beneath the government of Rome, that, additional to the taxes of the empire, they were bound to the feudal payments and the military services of the kingdom. But for this they were now relieved by the Romans from all the fear of incursions and all the danger of rapines. And for this they were now discharged by the Romans from all the expences of maintaining their numerous garrisons and of engaging in their frequent wars.

¹ Cæsar p. 118, In omni Gallia eorum hominum qui aliquo sunt numero atque honore genera sunt duo:—alterum est Druidum, alterum Equitum;—Howel lib. i. c. 12. a. 1, lib. iii. c. 7, lib. ii. c. 18. a. 1, and p. 340 and 341. See also Mona p. 121, 132, and 133.—² Lib. iv. c. 79. a. 1, p. 340, lib. ii. c. 17. a. 7. and p. 337, and Mona p. 132 and 133.—³ Lib. i. c. 37. a. 2 and 3.—⁴ Lib. i. c. 47. a. 6, p. 312 and 331, and Mona p. 127.—⁵ Lib. ii. c. 24. a. 1. and Mona p. 128.—⁶ Lib. ii. c. 24. a. 2.—⁷ Lib. ii. c. 29. a. 2 and 3, and c. 19. a. 11.—⁸ Ibid. and lib. ii. c. 23. a. 1.—⁹ Lib. ii. c. 14. a. 6, 7, and 8, Mona p. 124, and Ware's Ant. Hib. c. 13.—¹⁰ P. 332, 337, and 348, and Mona p. 132.
¹¹ Cæsar p. 118, In omni Gallia eorum hominum qui aliquo sunt numero atque honore genera sunt duo: nam plebs pæne fervorum habetur loco; lib. i. c. 19, lib. ii. c. 18, and ibid. c. 21.—¹² Lib. iii. c. 7, p. 450. a. 28, and lib. i. c. 3, and Mona p. 121.—¹³ P. 450. a. 28, and Mona p. 122 and 126.—¹⁴ P. 498. a. 4, and Mona p. 122.—¹⁵ Lib. ii. c. 25. a. 8 and c. 26. a. 7.—¹⁶ Lib. ii. c. 29. a. 4. and Mona p. 127.—¹⁷ Lib. ii. c. 29. a. 5.—¹⁸ Ibid. a. 6.—¹⁹ Lib. i. c. iii. &c., Mona p. 130, and Ware c. 8.—²⁰ Lib. i. c. 12. a. 23 and 24.—²¹ Lib. ii. c. 26. a. 7. and c. 25. a. 3.—²² Lib. i. c. 12. a. 7. and Mona p. 128.—²³ Lib. i. c. 12. a. 23 and 24, c. 15. a. 10, and c. 21. a. 8, 14, and 15.—²⁴ Lib. ii. c. 18. a. 1.—²⁵ See lib. ii. c. 26. a. 7.—²⁶ From a record of inquisition 15 Edw. II, 1322, in Kuerden folio p. 279.—²⁷ Cæsar p. 118, lib. i. c. 9. a. 8, Ibid. c. xix. a. 12, and lib. iii. c. 7.—²⁸ Cæsar p. 119, and Howel p. 324, p. 217, and lib. ii. c. 21. a. 35 and 36. And see B. II. c. iv. f. 1.—²⁹ Lib. i. c. 14. a. 29 &c., c. 38. a. 7, l. ii. c. 1. a. 66, and note p. 12 and glossary.—³⁰ P. 369 and 370, lib. ii. c. 1. a. 68 and 80, and lib. i. c. 14. a. 27, c. 17. a. 18, c. 18. a. 12, c. 21. a. 26, and c. 38. a. 7.—³¹ Lib. ii. c. 30. a. 8, lib. iv. c. 79. a. 1, and lib. ii. c. 30. a. 5.—³² Lib. i. c. 47. a. 6, p. 312. a. 54, and lib. ii. c. 12. a. 13 and Mona p. 123 and 128.—³³ Lib. i. c. 47. a. 2 and 9, lib. ii. c. 12. a. 7, lib. ii. c. 30. a. 9, p. 337, lib. iii. c. 3. a. 27, and p. 343.—³⁴ P. 369 and 370.—³⁵ B. II. c. 4. f. 1. and see note p.

12 in Wotton.—³⁶ Lib. ii. c. 21. a. 28 and 30 &c.—³⁷ See B. II. c. 4. f. 1. —³⁸ See Mona p. 130 &c., Ware c. 8 and 13, and Sir John Davies on the causes why Ireland was never entirely subdued by the English (London 1612) p. 177.—³⁹ Howel p. 337, and see before.—⁴⁰ P. 331.—⁴¹ P. 348 and 365 and lib. ii. c. 14. a. 6.—⁴² Lib. ii. c. 22. a. 9. and p. 365.—⁴³ Lib. ii. c. 14. a. 6, 7, and 8, and lib. ii. c. 12. a. 11. and c. 18. a. 3. Though the law is express that the villain son should not succeed by right to his father's lands (lib. ii. c. 12. a. 11), yet the sons certainly succeeded in fact at this period. The house is positively declared to be hereditary (lib. ii. c. 12. a. 11); and the whole compass of the villain township was divided betwixt them and the other villains (lib. ii. c. 12. a. 11. and lib. ii. c. 21. a. 7.). Nay, the lands were so divided that the sons were ordered by law to be left as much as possible upon their fathers lands (lib. ii. c. 12. a. 12). And the son of an Uchelwyr, bred up for a year and a day by a native villain with the permission of his lord, is declared to have a right to share the lands and the goods of the villain as if he had been the villain's son (lib. ii. c. 26. a. 8). And a free villain became by law the proprietary of his lands in the course of four generations (lib. ii. c. 18. a. 2). —⁴⁴ See B. II. c. iv. f. 1.—⁴⁵ Lib. i. c. 9. a. 14, lib. ii. c. 14. a. 3, 6, 7, and 8, lib. ii. c. 17. a. 8 and 10, p. 347, 348, &c, and p. 365, &c.—⁴⁶ Lib. i. c. 13. a. 10, lib. i. c. 16. a. 12, and Mona p. 131.—⁴⁷ See Merched lib. i. c. 14. a. 27, &c.; and see also Macpherson's Crit. Diff. p. 192—198, who idly derives it from a mark or piece of money. And see Selden's Titles of Honour, Blackstone's Comment. v. II. p. 83, and a thousand others, who all assert the truth of the fable.—⁴⁸ Lib. i. c. 3 and 9, &c.—⁴⁹ Hickes's Diff. Epist. p. 68, and Spelman in Manerium.—⁵⁰ Lib. ii. c. 19. a. 9, 10, 11, p. 340. Barwn-jeid or barons, and Baxter in Garmia.—⁵¹ Lib. i. c. 9 and 12. The Ealod was to render his hawks his horse and his dogs at death to the king: but then he received them previously from him. And the Bradwr Lllys or court-judge is the only person besides that seems to be exempted, being excepted in lib. i. c. 16. a. 42. But even he is obliged in

lib. i. c. 18. a. 12.—" Ware c. 8, Howel lib. ii. c. 17. a. 3, Mona p. 122, 12th of Edw. I., and 34—35th of Henry 8th c. 26. Item 91.—" Silas Taylor, the first critick who deduced the custom from the Britons, and the only one except Wotton p. 149 and his prefacer, derives the word Gavelkind, as Wotton also derives it, from the Welch Gavel Cepedl a Noble Estate. But as the Irish is much nearer than the Welch to the old Celtic (see Lhuyd p. 1), so it furnishes the very word, Kinead or Kind.—" Ware c. 8, 12 Edw. I., and 34—35 Hen. VIII.—" Howel l. ii. c. 17. a. 3. and p. 338, Ware c. 8, 12 Ed. I., and Howel p. 347 and 348.—" Ibid.—" Lib. ii. c. 14. a. 8 and p. 347.—" See lib. ii. c. 22. a. 6. compared with c. 20. a. 1.—" P. 348.—" Ibid.—" Ware c. 8 and Davies passim.—" Ware c. 8. And see a great mistake in Carte p. 179 &c., and in the sensible Silas Taylor p. 24 and 28, Powel's Hist. of Wales, Davis's Dictionary, &c. &c.

IV.

IN this disposition of the Sifuntian lands, it was necessary to have the country cantoned into particular regions and divided into lesser or greater districts. Such an internal partition of a kingdom is necessarily one of the earliest efforts of its civil polity. And the assignment of particular lands to each of the chiefs at first must have necessarily produced such divisions very early in our own county; and Lancashire must have been parcelled into districts coevally with the first plantation of it.

These divisions must have been similar to our present townships, and the actual origin of them. The Tref or Mansion of the lord and of his more immediate attendants, the neighbouring though dispersed cotes of his ambaston, and the lands immediately adjacent to both, must necessarily have formed one division or township. Such undoubtedly were the Vici of the Gauls, of which the Helvetii had four hundred though they had only twelve towns, which were certainly considerable mansions, and which were also particular districts. And such were in the earliest ages and are at this period the Treys of the Welch,

Welch, deriving their denomination from their origin, and declaring the one by the other¹.

Thus did the little districts of our townships in Lancashire commence with the first colony that settled in it. The lands within the compass of one township were assigned to one chief, and became a lordship under him, the grazing grounds undoubtedly of his domestic flock. The rest of his cattle were sent most probably, either into such of the neighbouring heaths and woods as afforded a common right of pasture, or into the fells of Furness and the mountains of Westmoreland, or into both. And the ordinary care and the common guard of the towns and forts that were raised by the Sifuntians afterwards, raised in the depth of extensive woods, and consequently upon lands belonging to the crown as having never been ceded to a feudatory², was assigned by the king without doubt to a determinate number of the neighbouring townships.

These little districts must have subsisted by themselves only for a short period after their appointment. The more regular administration of justice in the kingdom must soon have occasioned the combination of several townships into one cymmwd or commot, and of many into one cantref or hundred. Such divisions we actually find among the Gauls, among the Welch, and among the Irish, and in the earliest institutes of the Welch referred to the primæval Britons³. And as the denomination of Cantref was given to a division by the Britons from the number of townships of which it consisted, Cantrev signifying an hundred trevs, so the Helvetian Gauls had four hundred vici or townships and just four pagi or cantrevs⁴.

Such was the first beginning of those larger regions or districts in Lancashire which we now denominate the Hundreds of it. Formed some time before the towns were constructed, they must naturally have adopted their appellations from the most remarkable objects of nature within the extent of them. And from the partition of the large country of Helvetia into four cantrevs only, a country spreading about two hundred and twenty Roman miles in length and one hundred and eighty in breadth⁵, but loaded with

with mountains in every part, Siftuntia or Lancashire could not have been divided into many. The country which lay to the south of the Ribble could not have been divided into more than two hundreds, the one perhaps taking in the western side of the country, and the other perhaps comprizing the eastern. There could not possibly have been more than two hundred townships to the south of the Ribble at the period of this institution. And the county in general must have been considerably populous even in this disposition of the south, being divided at least into three cantrevs or hundreds, and comprizing at least three hundred trevs or townships. Very populous, we are well assured⁷, was the whole circuit of the island in general; and proportionably so must have been every kingdom of it in particular. And the counties of Durham York Cumberland Westmoreland and Lancaster are expressly declared to have been uncommonly populous even before the settlement of the Romans within them⁸.

Nor was this interior disposition of the county destroyed, as at first sight it may seem to have been, by the conquest of the Romans and the erection of their towns. When Agricola induced the chiefs to settle in towns with their ambacton, he did not prevail upon all. He prevailed upon few. The greater number must have adhered to their original mode of living. This the fewness of the towns which Agricola induced them to erect very plainly demonstrates. The compass merely of eight small towns, and the narrow precincts of their cultivated areas, could never have contained the whole nation, could have contained only a very insignificant number, of the Siftuntii. Only one of the nearest chiefs must have been persuaded to settle in the town of Mancunium, attended by the train of his ambacton. And he must have retained assuredly his old mansion and his old township, keeping the former perhaps as a lodge for hunting, and still using the latter as a pasture for his cattle.

This chieftain must have continued to be, as I shall shew every of his successors in the barony of Manchester to have invariably been, an hereditary member of the British parliament⁹. At that period and for several ages after it, the British councils

must have been composed only of hereditary members. An elective estate of the legislature, that favourite branch of the constitution to every genuine Englishman, was actually and entirely unknown. The commons of the Celtic kingdoms were of no consequence at all in the general estimate of polity, and were allowed no suffrages in the general assemblies of the country¹⁰. The commons of Britain, as I have already demonstrated, were absolutely all in a state of villainage. And the constituent members of the parliament in the days of Howel Dha, the only ancient parliament among the Britons of which we have any records remaining at present, are expressly declared to have been the men of wisdom and the men of authority in the kingdom¹¹. The feudatories of Britain, like the feudatories of Normandy, were obliged by the tenure of their fees to the performance of certain civil as well as military services to the crown, expressly denominated the Services of the Forum, and in fact relating equally to acts of legislation as to the administration of justice¹².

The cantreys were equally continued under the Roman government. This the continuance of them among the Britons of Wales abundantly evinces. They must have been originally used by the Siftuntii for many purposes of a civil and a military nature, the collection of taxes, the mustering of forces, and the administration of justice. And to these they must have been still applied by both the Romans and the Britons. The Roman quæstor of Mancunium was perhaps charged with the collection of all the Roman taxes, and the Roman præfect at Mancunium was perhaps commissioned to sit upon all the capital offences, that arose within the compass of the eastern hundred.

But the institution of trevs commots and cantrevs must have been particularly subservient to the administration of civil justice. The territorial judicatures of later feuds were all exemplified among the Britons. Every cantrev commot and trev had a distinct court of justice, the appropriated tribunal of the district or the seigniory. Thus the possessor of a villain estate under a royal or a private lord was expressly bound to his appearance in
the

the court of his own villain tref or township ". Thus an uchelwyr is expressly declared to have had a right of determining causes that arose within his own domain ". And thus we find the courts of the commot and of the cantred to have been held in virtue of their office by the appointed governours of those extended districts ". Every baron in right of his fee was at once an hereditary judge in the supreme court of justice, the parliament, and an hereditary justiciary in his own jurisdiction ". Thus the claimant of an estate was obliged to commence his action before the lord who had the immediate seignior of the land ". And thus a person that had received the investiture of a fee from the king was not, upon any suit concerning the fee, to answer in the Llys or court of a frehyr-jawl or private lord, but before the judge of the principal court ". In these, as well as in the superior court of parliament, that great that amiable principle of the feudal system, the limited necessity of a concurrence in the governed to render valid the acts of the governour, must have been absolutely reduced to practice. In the inferior moot of the tref the œconomy of justice must have been conducted with the assistance and concurrence of the superior villains. In these later ages of the feuds and in the same sort of baronial courts, the free soccagers must have been the assessors with the mesne lord, and the villain soccagers must have sat with the king's bailiff. And every owner of a noble fee within the jurisdiction of a commot or a cantrev court appears actually to have inherited a seat and a suffrage in it ". These were denominated the Seniors, and their decision was denominated the Verdict, of the Country; and they are retained by representation in the jury of the present times ". Such was the establishment of courts in the kingdoms of Britain, agreeing pretty exactly with the Norman judicatures erected afterwards, the court of the tref answering to the moot of the mesne lord, the court of the commot to the leet of the superior barony, and the judicature of the cantref to the court of the hundred. Only the second was not among the Britons, as it was among the Normans, the private moot of a seignior. It was absolutely,

like the third among both, the public judicature of the crown,

The disputes betwixt the members of the different treds being referred to the court of the commot, and betwixt the members of the different commots to the court of the cantred, the differences betwixt the inhabitants of the different cantreds were carried to a moot which was superior to all and was therefore denominated the principal court ". In this the supreme judicature of the kingdom were determined all the various suits that respected the fees of the royal feudatories, and such other causes as were too dubious to be decided in the inferior courts ". The king presided in person or by deputy, the one judge of the principal court ; and the feudatories of the kingdom were assessors with him ". But besides these there were other assessors, the regular and official judges of the kingdom, and by the nomination of the king the presidents in the courts of a commot or a cantred ". These were denominated Brehons in Ireland and in Caledonia, and were invested with feuds that descended with their offices to their sons ". This is a branch of polity which has been universally supposed to be merely Celtic, the result of the Celtic genius untutored in judicial speculations, and vainly imagining the knowledge of the law to be as inheritable as the office and the feud. But this was certainly founded upon as sensible principles as the baronial judicatures of the feudal nations, and was actually exemplified in the hereditary earldoms of the Normans. And this was certainly an improvement upon the common judicial principles of feuds, the brehon being of course not charged for his fee to any of the military services, and being therefore at liberty to fix his whole attention and the attention of his son upon the study of the law. The same strain of polity, however it has been utterly unnoticed by the critics, is discovered equally in the judicial system of these later ages. In a record of the 13th of John, the two lords of Whithington near Manchester are expressly declared to " hold one knight's fee under the baron of Manchester in ancient manner, and " finding one judge for the lord the king ". And in a record of

of the same period the lord of Pilkington near Manchester is equally mentioned to possess one fourth of a fee from the same baron. "in antient farm and finding one judge for the king". These courts determined all the disputes emergent in the little kingdoms of the Britons. But to the king's own private determination were referred all causes that related to the crown, respected the king, or belonged to any of the royal family".

All these Gorseddau or courts of judicature must have been constantly convened under the Romans, as they were certainly assembled at first, in the open air, upon the summit or the slope of an hill, within some appropriated circle of stones or some appropriated amphitheatre of stones and turf. In the regions of Caledonia and Ireland they were assembled for ages after this period upon the side of an hill, and the judges were seated upon green banks of earth; the grounds being formerly denominated the Mute or Moot Hills in Caledonia, and being now entitled the Parle or Parling Hills in Ireland". And in the Romanized regions of Britannia Secunda or Wales even the supreme judicature of the kingdom, which was frequently held by the king in person, was in all causes of inheritance antiently convened in the open air as late as the tenth century". The judges were paid for their decisions by the gainer of the cause; and the rate of the payment was settled by the law". And the judges determined by a Brawd-lyfr, a Cause-book, or a code of laws, which appears to have been drawn up before the reign of Howel, which was assuredly compiled in the period of the Roman residence, and which contained all the antient institutes and authentic customs of the country, the common-law of Lancashire and of Britain".

The casualties of wrecks and of treasure-trove belonged to the king, who was necessarily in all the feudal kingdoms the general owner of such property as was challenged by no other claimant". The half of the former however was resigned by the crown to the private lord of the domain upon which it was accidentally thrown". The uninterrupted possession of an estate reasonably conferred an absolute right to it; but it was the possession

possession of no less than an hundred and eighty years, a term rudely supposed to be commensurate with three generations¹¹. Any proprietor in the kingdom might annually let out his land at his own discretion; but he could not either sell or mortgage it without a licence from his lord¹². All the estates in the kingdom were entailed, and could not be alienated from the line, unless the king and all the relations of the possessor, his brothers, his consins, and his consins sons, concurred in the act, and unless the alienation was made in order to pay the fine for murder, a payment in which the law considered the son as equally interested with the father¹³. And nothing could be bequeathed by a testament but debts¹⁴. The son was actually of age at fourteen, and the daughter at twelve; and by a strange absurdity the son had a just ground of action against his father for any correction afterwards¹⁵. And the general peace of the country was secured by that wise economy of civil polity which appears afterwards so greatly improved among the Saxons, the institution of Frank-pledges. The free-man or noble was responsible to the state for the conduct of his sons and his villains, and was obliged to satisfy the government for any offences which they committed, unless (as was very seldom the case) the punishment was the forfeiture of life or limb¹⁶. Being entitled to receive satisfaction for any offences committed upon them, he was naturally required to make it for any offences committed by them¹⁷.

The general jurisprudence of the country was regulated as it seems to have been regulated in all nations at first, and as it was particularly regulated among the Germans¹⁸. No crimes were ordinarily capital. They were punished only with an Eric or fine. Such was the case formerly in Scotland¹⁹. Such was the case originally in Ireland²⁰. And such was the case antiently in Wales. These fines were of two appellations and degrees, the public and the private²¹. The former were twelve cows or three pounds, the latter were three cows or an hundred and eighty pence²². A theft a rape and a riot were generally punished by the former; all other offences (except murder)

were

were generally punished by the latter". In some circumstances however the criminal was corrected with personal inflictions. The noble was not answerable for his villain in any causes that affected either life or limb". And even robbery was sometimes punished with banishment, with slavery, or with hanging".

The right of compurgation, which unjustly seems so extraordinary a test to the judgment of these later ages, and which was very familiar to the Saxons, appears to have been equally in use among the Britons. The accused having asserted his own innocence upon oath, a number of his friends appeared in court, and swore to their belief of the same innocence. The rank of the witness was required among the Saxons and the Britons to be the same with the rank of the accused". And the number varied with the nature of the accusation. In all civil cases the oaths of twenty-four men were required to take off the force of an accusation concerning the value of an hundred and twenty pence, and the oaths of forty-eight for the value of two hundred and forty".

In all the modes of a criminal process, the forms of proceeding in the British courts exactly coincide with the Saxon in some particulars, and are essentially distinguished from them in others. The three acts of murder theft and housefiring had each nine Affaeth Affinities or accessory parts of the crime, for which a person was equally responsible to the law as for the actual perpetration of the deed, and was subjected to different degrees of punishment by it". The three first circumstantialis of murder in particular were to point out to the murderer the proper place for the crime, to advise him about the execution, or to encourage him to the fact; and each required upon a denial of the charge a compurgation of an hundred men, or was followed upon confession of the deed with a fine of an hundred and eighty pence. The three next were to point out the person intended to be murdered, to accompany the murderer a little on the road to the murder, or to attend him to the very scene of the villainy; and if each accusation was not refelled by the oaths of two hundred men, each crime was punished with

with the mulct of three hundred and sixty pence. And the other three were actually to assist the murderer, to detain the unhappy man till the murderer came up, and to stand by and behold the commission of the murder, and were each to be answered by three hundred men or mulcted five hundred and forty pence". The fine for the actual perpetration of murder, the Werigild of the Saxons, was denominated Gwerth among the Britons, the worth or price of the murdered. Even the king had his gwerth, as among the Saxons; though the British law has not, like the Saxon, sufficiently told us the rate of it". The gwerth of an uchelwyr was settled at sixty-three cows or fifteen pounds fifteen shillings in all, and the gwerth of an uchelwyr's villain at half the money". The fine was discharged to the lord and the relations of the murdered. All the kindred of the murderer were obliged to contribute to it in certain proportions ascertained by the law. And, if every penny was not paid, the former might put the murderer to death with impunity⁵⁶.

In all the modes of a civil process, the forms of proceeding in the British courts stand entirely distinguished from the Saxon. Every cause that respected inheritances was referred to the principal court, to the examination of the king or his deputy, the official judges, and the collected barons". The other courts were continually open: but this was occasionally shut. Its juridical year was divided into terms. These were only two in number, and in this the infancy of civil polity were very naturally regulated by the season of sowing and the period of the harvest". The former commenced upon the 9th of May, when the seed-time was concluded, and lasted to the 9th of August. The latter began upon the 9th of November, when the harvest was compleated, and continued to the 9th of February". Though the suits in these courts respected the descent of inheritances, the most involved and perplexing causes that are brought before our present judicatures, yet the action was so generally decided within the compass of a single term, that if it ever extended beyond the close of it, it was necessarily recommenced at the beginning of the next". Every action was prosecuted
with

with the simplest forms, and was consequently decided in a summary manner. At the commencement of the cause, the plaintiff and defendant were ordered to propound their pleas, and were allowed three nine or fourteen days for producing their witnesses, according to the distances at which they asserted them to reside from them. Upon the day appointed the judges repaired to the disputed estate, and each took his seat in the open air, the king or his deputy first seating himself with his back to the sun or weather. The parties gave securities for their peaceable submission to the award of the court, securities that were actual hostages and were lodged in a prison. Silence was proclaimed in the court, the breach of it was severely fineable, and each party in person briefly stated the nature of his cause and offered to produce his witnesses. If the witnesses were actually present, the cause was immediately determined. If the witnesses were absent, another interval of three nine or fourteen days was allowed. The second meeting was decisive. The hostages were brought into court, the witnesses delivered their testimonies, and the judges retired for consultation. The personal dignity as well as the actual number of the witnesses influenced the decision. And contrary to all the principles of equity, which upon an equality of evidence always determine in favour of the possessor, the defendant was absolutely nonsuited, unless his witnesses were not only equal, but even superior in number and dignity to the plaintiff's⁶¹.

¹ Cæsar p. 3 and 114. And see below.—² Howel lib. ii. c. 19. —³ See Wotton's Glossary to Howel under Diffaith Brenin.—

⁴ Howel lib. iir. c. 27. a. 25. And see lib. ii. c. 19. Mona p. 117, and Davies p. 134.—⁵ Cæsar p. 3 and 7 and 117.—⁶ Cæsar p. 2.

⁷ Diodorus p. 347; *παλιν-αυθιματος νησας*, and Cæsar p. 88, *Hominum est infinita multitudo*.—⁸ Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. 17, *Brigantes—civitas numerosissima totius provinciae*.—⁹ See b. II. ch. iv. f. 2.—¹⁰ Cæsar p. 118 concerning the Gauls, *Plebs penè servorum habetur loco, quæ per se nihil audet, & nulli adhibetur concilio*.

concilio.—¹¹ See the Prefaces to the Laws.—¹² Lib. ii. c. 17. a. 6 &c. p. 348, and Pref. to Laws.—¹³ P. 325, and lib. ii. c. 26. a. 1.—¹⁴ Lib. i. c. 16. a. 30, lib. ii. c. 2. a. 3, and p. 325. c. 85.—¹⁵ P. 389, 405, 468, lib. i. c. 6. a. 1 and 2, and lib. i. c. 16. a. 3.—¹⁶ P. 93, 187, 307, 377, and 403.—¹⁷ Lib. iv. c. 70. a. 1.—¹⁸ P. 325.—¹⁹ P. 187, 121, 325, and 405, and Mona p. 121.—²⁰ Lib. ii. c. 10. a. 1. and lib. iv. c. 70. a. 1.—²¹ P. 121 and 390.—²² P. 325, lib. i. c. 16. a. 36, p. 19, and p. 27.—²³ P. 325, and lib. ii. c. 10. a. 12.—²⁴ Lib. ii. c. 10. a. 12, lib. i. c. 16. a. 35, and lib. iii. Pref. 2.—²⁵ Ware c. viii. and Crit. Diff. p. 186.—²⁶ Kuerden folio p. 274.—²⁷ Ibid.—²⁸ Lib. i. c. 27. a. 10.—²⁹ Ware c. viii, Crit. Diff. p. 187, and Spelman in Parliamentum. In Borlase's Cornwall p. 208 is an amphitheater which I take to have been for this use. And so the Tinwald of the Manks and the Stannary Parliaments of the Cornish to this day.—³⁰ Lib. ii. c. 10. a. 12.—³¹ Lib. i. c. 16. and lib. ii. c. 27. a. 21.—³² P. 186, 300, and 408. And in Ireland (says Ware) they determined from certain prescripts and customs of the kingdom (c. viii).—³³ Lib. ii. c. 17. a. 12 and 13, c. 27. a. 9, and c. 13.—³⁴ Lib. ii. c. 17. a. 14.—³⁵ Lib. ii. c. 17. a. 7 and 8.—³⁶ Lib. ii. c. 17. a. 29.—³⁷ Lib. ii. c. 17. a. 1.—³⁸ Lib. ii. c. 1. a. 15.—³⁹ Lib. ii. c. 30. a. 8 and 12.—⁴⁰ P. 325 and lib. ii. c. 30. a. 5.—⁴¹ Lib. iii. c. 2. a. 32 &c. &c.—⁴² Tacitus c. 21.—⁴³ Crit. Diff. p. 187.—⁴⁴ Ware c. viii.—⁴⁵ Lib. iii. c. 1. a. 17.—⁴⁶ Ibid.—⁴⁷ Ibid.—⁴⁸ P. 325.—⁴⁹ P. 210, 217, and 325.—⁵⁰ Lib. iii. c. 3. a. 49 and 54, and see b. II. ch. iii. f. 4.—⁵¹ Ibid. a. 51 and 52.—⁵² Lib. iii. Pref. 2.—⁵³ Lib. iii. c. 1.—⁵⁴ Lib. i. c. 4. and lib. iii. c. 2.—⁵⁵ Lib. ii. c. 30. a. 10, l. iii. c. 2. a. 9, and lib. iii. c. 1. a. 17.—⁵⁶ Lib. iii. c. 1. a. 15, 16, and 20, 24, and 22.—⁵⁷ Lib. ii. c. 10. a. 11, and p. 325.—⁵⁸ Lib. ii. c. 10. a. 7.—⁵⁹ Ibid. a. 3—6.—⁶⁰ A. 10.—⁶¹ Lib. ii. c. 10.

The deductions which I have made in this chapter from the Collection of Welch Laws published by Dr. Wotton are not made, as the Reader will remark, merely from the fourth and fifth books of them, which, like the laws of the Confessor in the Saxon Code, are only commentaries upon the previous Institutes,

tutes, though, like them, as antient sensible commentaries, they are at once useful in their notices and respectable for their authority. The deductions are not even made, as the Reader will equally remark, merely from a few detached passages in the three first books, which contain the laws of Howel Dha in particular, but from the general uniform tenour of his whole Code. A few single passages might be the production of that interpolating hand which we clearly discern in some parts and therefore suspect in others. But a general uniform tenour cannot be the result of any interpolations at all. It must flow from the genuine the original source of the whole. The true idea of these deductions therefore must be taken from a compleat a comprehensive view of them. These evince one regular system of military and civil polity to be exhibited in the laws, to be incorporated into the frame, and to be the actuating life and spirit, of them. Such a system could as little be the creation of Howel as it could be the invention of any of the kings after him. Howel interpolated the code existing before him as the succeeding kings interpolated his. And the strong and striking agreement of the whole written system of Wales with the unwritten system of Ireland fully proves the interpolations of all to have been merely trifling and immaterial, and decisively demonstrates the present code of Howel and his successors to be the fair register the faithful exemplar of the municipal laws of the antient and original Britons.

C H A P. IX.

I.

THE whole extended commerce of the Belgic and the interior Britons was carried on without the assistance of money and in the course of a regular exchange. Such was certainly the first commerce of the island, that which the Phœnicians opened with the south-western extremities of it¹. Such was certainly the much recenter commerce which was prosecuted with so uncommon a vigour, and was diffused to so great an extent, during the reigns of Augustus and Tiberius². And such must therefore have been equally the commerce betwixt the Belgic and the aboriginal Britons. Hence neither of them possessed any minted money at the period of Cæsar's descent upon the island. And the British attempts at a coinage had then risen no higher than to pieces of brass and iron bullion, unshaped, unstamped, and rated by the weight³. But, during the extended state of the British commerce in the reigns of Augustus and Tiberius, the advantages of a coinage must have appeared to be very considerable abroad, and the facility of engaging coiners must have been a considerable inducement to begin it at home. A mint-master was invited over from the continent. He came; he brought all his implements with him; and a mint, the first that ever appeared in the island, was erected in the south. And Cunobeline, the successor of the famous Cassivelaun in the monarchy of the Cassii, and now equally the sovereign of them and the Trinovantes, was the first monarch in the island that minted money⁴.

The first mint was pretty certainly set up, one mint was undoubtedly erected; at his royal town of Camulodunum or Colchester.

chester¹. The instruments of coinage appear to have been the same as continued among us nearly to the present period, the round piece of metal being stamped with the stroke of an hammer above, and at the same time receiving another impression from a die below⁶. And the metals that were coined were generally gold silver and brass⁷. Mines of silver and gold were worked in the island during the reigns of Augustus and of Trajan⁸. A gold mine was actually discovered a few years ago at Ampthill in the county of Bedford and within the territories of Cunobeline⁹. And the British mint adopted at once all that variety of metals in its coins to which the Romans were several ages in ascending. All the money of the Roman state was merely brass for nearly three hundred years together, the coinage in silver commencing only five years before the first Punic war, and the coinage of gold not succeeding till more than sixty years afterwards¹⁰. And about thirty of these coins of Cunobeline have descended to us. Some of them exhibit a plane surface, but most of them bear a small convexity¹¹. And few of them carry a fine texture in their composition, the metals being too much debased with foreign mixtures¹².

That the art of minting was thus introduced into the island from the Roman continent, is abundantly evinced by the inscriptions and the faces of these coins. The devices are many of them undoubtedly Roman, januses, sphinxes, centaurs, pegasuses, and laurel-wreaths. The letters upon them are all derived from the Roman alphabet, and, what supercedes all further argument, some of the inscriptions are even written in the Roman language¹³. And that the art of minting was introduced by Cunobeline, we have every reason to suppose, as it must have been introduced after the invasion of Cæsar, as Cunobeline lived in the reigns of Tiberius and Caligula¹⁴, and as he is the earliest monarch of the Britons whose coins we have discovered. The art must have been introduced before the death of Cunobeline and the surrender of Camulodunum to the Romans. The death of the king happened before the surrendery of the capital; and the capital was taken in the autumn of 43¹⁵. And had Cuno-

beline survived the subjection of his kingdom, he could not have retained the power of the mint; that liberty being constantly taken away by the Romans, the right of coining being exercised only by themselves, and the coins being all inscribed with the names of the Roman emperors ¹⁶.

But the mint at Camulodunum was not the only one which Cunobeline erected. He set up three others in three other towns of his dominions ¹⁷. And Caractacus, or (as he is more properly called by Richard and the Triades) Charaticus and Caradauc so deservedly famous afterwards for his gallant opposition to the Roman army and his more gallant behaviour to the victorious emperor, one of the sons of Cunobeline, and his successor in the sovereignty of the Cassii and Trinovantes, adopted the same scheme and employed the same mint-master ¹⁸. But in all probability he coined only a few pieces, his own kingdom being soon reduced by the Romans, and himself taking refuge with the Silures and the Brigantes. And we have only one of his coins at present.

But the art of coining could not long remain confined within the precincts of the Cassii and the Trinovantes. And many coins which have been discovered in the island evince that it did not. These carry no appearances upon them that can induce us to attribute them to any other than the primæval Britons. These carry a remarkable and striking similarity to the coins of Cunobeline. The wheel, the horse, the crescent, and the boar, so frequently the devices upon the latter, appear as frequently upon the former ¹⁹. Even the name of Tascia, which occurs so often on the coins of Cunobeline, the appellation of the mint-master in all probability whom Cunobeline originally invited into the island, appears equally inscribed upon some of these ²⁰. And, as many of them have been found in the midst of undoubtedly British monuments ²¹, so several of them exhibit even the British chariot very evidently portrayed upon them ²². Being discovered within the island, and bearing in their appearances no relation to any other country, the suggestions of good-sense and the proprieties of reasoning would have obliged us to refer them to the

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the British coinage. But discovered within the country, carrying every appearance of relation to it in their aspect, found even among monuments indubitably British, and presenting even the indubitable symbols of a British mint, it would be the squeamishness of folly to hesitate about their original²¹.

The art of coining, thus introduced by Cunobeline and pursued by Caractacus, first travelled in all probability, whither it would most easily be carried, into the country of the Dobuni or Boduni and the kingdom of Togodumnus, the son of the one and the brother of the other²². And it afterwards was carried gradually through the island, being practised at Calleda, Calleva, or Wallingford, the capital of the Atrebatas²³; by Bootica or Boadicia, the queen of the Iceni; by Comus and by Calle, the sovereigns of two other principalities; and at Durnum or Durnacum, the Durinum of Richard, the Durnovaria of Antoninus, and the present Dorchester, in the west; and both at Eburno, Ebur-ac, or York, and at Eborac, the Eboracum of Antoninus, or Aldborough, in the north²⁴.

Thus was the kingdom of Lancashire first provided with a regular coinage a few years before the period of the Roman invasion. The art of coining had not opportunity to exert itself sufficiently in Lancashire, before the coming of the Romans superseded the necessity of it. At that period therefore the quantity of money within the county must have been very insignificant; and none of it has reached the present age. But it must have been nearly the same in the metals in the design and in the execution, as were the coins of the Britons in general and of the Brigantes in particular. The metals of all were generally gold silver or brass, sometimes amber, and even sometimes iron²⁵. In some the gold was even minted without any alloy. In most the gold and silver were considerably debased²⁶. The minting was frequently rude, the first efforts of the British coiners being as devoid of propriety as they were uninformed by experience. And the minting was frequently graceful, the art naturally refining as it proceeded, and at last catching all the spirit and elegance of the coins of Cunobeline²⁷.

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Upon the coming of the Romans the Sifuntian mint was stop't. But the Romans became coiners for the Britons. No less than eleven mints in all probability were established within the pale of their own government, two in the two municipia and nine in the nine colonies. And coins minted at Chester at London and at York at Richborough at Colchester at Lincoln Verulam and Gloucester have been safely transmitted to the present days¹⁰. Chester from one side and York from the other diffused their minted wealth over Lancashire. The British chiefs in general appear to have had considerable riches among them. Thus Cæsar acquired a large booty in his two descents upon the island¹¹. Prasutagus the king of the Iceni died possessed of very great wealth¹². And to a few states in the south, and within a few years after their first subjection, the philosophical Seneca lent more than even four hundred and eighty thousand pounds of our money upon good security and exorbitant interest¹³. The Roman coins that circulated in the island must have been generally minted within it, as the great number of the mints suggests, and must have been as generally framed from the native or imported bullion of it. The Roman coins must have been current in great numbers among the Britons, as the incredible quantities that have been discovered within the island very clearly demonstrate. They must not have circulated merely among the soldiers and the traders of the Romans. They must have circulated among the British chiefs, among the British ambacton. Hence such large treasures of the Roman coins have been formerly found, and are now frequently discovered, in every quarter of the island. And hence such large treasures of the Roman coins have particularly risen, and are daily rising, to light from the site and from the vicinity of almost every stationary town in the kingdom¹⁴.

¹⁰ Strabo p. 265.—¹¹ Ibid. p. 306.—¹² Cæsar p. 88. See Pegge's *Coins of Cunobeline* p. 35. And the Romans used only pieces of unstamped brass to the days of Servius Tullius, Pliny lib. 33. c. 3.—¹³ The tenour of the history in Dio p. 957—959 plainly shews Cunobeline to have been king of the Cassi as well as of the Trino-

Trinovantes. On Plautus's invasion of the country of the Cassii, in that part which was inhabited by their subjects the Dobuni, he was met by Caractacus and Togodumnus. Both were successively defeated. The one was killed, and the other retired. The Dobuni then submitted. And Plautus followed up his successes to Camulodunum the capital.—Dio p. 959, and Pegge's class 2.—Pegge p. 69.—Pegge's Plates.—Strabo p. 305, and Agric. Vit. c. 12.—Camden c. 340.—Pliny lib. 33. c. 3.—Pegge p. 9.—Ditto.—P. 42 to 49.—Suetonius's Caligula c. 44.—Dio p. 957, and Carte p. 101. vol. I.—Gildas's Hist. c. 5.—Pegge class 4. N° 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, and class 2. N° 5. and class 5. N° 1.—Class 6. N° 2.—Camden's Coins, class 1. N° 8, 10, 11, 13—16, 25, 26, 31—33, class 2. N° 8, 10, 31, and 32, and Borlase's Coins N° 5, 13—21, and 22.—Pegge p. 21 and class 5, and Thoresby's Museum p. 338. N° 10.—Borlase's Cornwall p. 258 and 116.—Borlase N° 22, and Camden class 2. N° 30.—How mistaken therefore are Messieurs Pegge Pettingal and Wife! The first is willing to reject all but the coins of Cunobeline. And the others are desirous equally and absolutely to reject all.—Dio p. 957, Camden class 1. N° 8, and Pegge p. 59 for Beric. See Carte p. 100.—Caleda and Calleva as Cantrev and Cantred.—Camden class 1. N° 10, 11, 15, 26, and 31, class 2. N° 10 and 32. As it was very inaccurate in Messieurs Speed and Borlase to suppose Comus to be the king of the British Atrebrates, when Cæsar plainly declares him to have been the sovereign of the Gallic, so was it equally unwary in Mr. Pegge to conclude, that because the Comus of Cæsar was a Gallic prince therefore the Comus of the Coins could not possibly be a British one (p. 38). The latter was undoubtedly a distinct person from the former. And from the addition of RE. upon the coins appears to have been a British king.—And see another great mistake in Mr. Pegge p. 21, who rejects all the coins of Prasutagus Togodumnus and Caractacus, because the British kings coined no monies under the Romans. The latter may be true, and the former not be false. These princes might coin money before the Romans subdued their kingdoms.—

"Pegge p. 84 and Thoresby's *Musæum* p. 337.—"Borlase p. 250 and Camden c. cxiv. Gibson.—"Camden class 1. N° 6, 11—16, 25, 31, and others.—"See Camden c. 671, 374, and 877 for London, Chester, and York, and Stukeley's *Carausius* vol. I. p. 66 &c. for Richborough, p. 96 for Colchester, p. 276 and 277 for Lincoln, p. 253 for Claudia, Gloucester, and pl. 12. N° 1. for Verulam.—"Strabo p. 306.—"Tacitus *Ann. lib. xiv. c. 31.*—"Dio p. 1003.—"I am sorry to observe, that Mr. Pegge has sullied his useful treatise on the Coins of Cunobeline with a rude stricture on the late Dr. Stukeley. Let the extravagancies of Dr. Stukeley be all corrected. They ought to be. But let not his character be held up to the public as the mere fantastical enthusiast of antiquities. This justice, gratitude, and politeness equally concur to forbid. His strong intellect, his enterprizing spirit, and his extensive learning must ever be remembered with respect and reverence. And even his extravagancies, great as they are, must be considered as the occasionally wild colouring of that bright ray of genius which has not yet been too frequently the portion of our English antiquarians, and which never seduces the dull critic either into excellencies or into extravagancies.

II.

THE primæval Britons of Lancashire and the rest of the island, whatever history has asserted or antiquarianism believed of both, were not unacquainted with the mechanical arts in general. This their ability to construct the military chariots of their country is a sufficient indication in itself. The primæval Britons of Lancashire and the rest of the island were even intimately acquainted with two or three of the mechanical arts in particular. This the ingeniousness of the contrivance and the neatness of the execution in the British chariots sufficiently demonstrates. These cars were even admired by the Romans, were adopted by individuals for their journeys, and were introduced by the public into their races. And we have the picture of one of them sketched out by a British hand and engraved upon a British coin.

coin". There we see the charioteer mounted on his carriage before us, a quiver of arrows peeping over his left shoulder, and a spear protended from his left hand, his feet resting upon the pole or on a foot-board annexed to it, and his body leaning over the horses in the act of accelerating their motion. And we have the description of another, which is equally authentic in itself, very similar in one or two particulars, and more circumstantial. There we have the car of a British Regulus bending behind and drawn by a pair of horses; its sides being embossed with sparkling stones, its beam of the polished yew, and its seat of the smoothest bone; its sides being replenished with spears, the bottom being the footstool of the chief, and his red hair flying from his head behind as bending forward he wields the spear.

The primæval Britons understood the useful art and practised the convenient labours of the pottery. Many of their earthen vessels have descended to us by the only way in which they could have descended, or could have been ascertained to them if they had. They have been discovered in the sepulchers of the Britons upon Salisbury Plain in Cornwall and in Ireland*. They were some of them rudely wrought, and others pretty neatly fashioned. They were generally ornamented with little moldings and circular channels about the brim. And all but one had been burned in a kiln or furnace. This must have been one of the earliest arts upon which the human understanding exerted its faculties, when it first began to attend to a better provision for domestic occasions and the more agreeable accommodation of domestic life. In all probability therefore it was imported into the island with the first colonists of the country. And the Britons must have gradually improved it afterwards, forming the perhaps shapeless vessel of their fathers in a regular mold, strengthening their unbaked clay by the hardening fires of a stove, and even enlivening their plain workmanship with some little decorations. But the progress of the art in Britain was very unequal to its refinements on the continent. And shells were the only drinking-vessels of the Britons*. The Britons

of the west, who had carried on a long and a close correspondence with the continent, and who must have been acquainted, if any of the Britons were, with the continental improvements in the art, were therefore fond of the foreign ware and gave it a good vent in their country*. But the arrival of the Romans introduced all the refinements of Campania, and a pottery must have been necessarily erected at every stationary town in the kingdom. In the Mancunian pottery, as I have demonstrated before, were some excellent artists engaged. And in it, under the direction of a Roman or Roman-Frisian master, the Mancunians learnt to model their vessels with a lathe, to give them the soft polish of a glazing, and to flourish them with carvings and emboss them with figures*.

Nor were the primæval Britons uninstructed in the business of the turner and the employ of the carpenter. They were conversant with both, forming their shields either in circles or in lozenges, tapering the shafts of their spears and arrows, and rounding the axles of their chariots*. Such a degree of mechanical knowledge could scarcely be unknown to any nation, and was absolutely necessary to a military one. And this would naturally lead them to the formation of many domestic utensils of wood. Such were most probably the first domestic implements of man in general, the block of the maple or the beech being first scooped into an unwieldy unshapely vessel, the knife afterwards pruning off the excrescencies and correcting the form, the lathe rounding it next into neatness, and the graver carving it at last into elegance. And with these implements of wood the primæval Britons must have had trenchurs, trenchers, or wooden plates; wooden cads or chairs, and all the wooden furniture of the brewery. The chairs we see represented upon the coins of Cunobeline, a winged figure being placed with an helmet and trowers in one of them, and the king's minister being seated in another*. In this respect the Britons were more polished than the Gauls, the latter even after the conquest of them by the Romans sitting constantly upon the ground at their entertainments, and having
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only a carpet of skins beneath them". And the British chairs were either merely tall rounded blocks of wood, which our Mancunians to this day distinguish by the British appellation of Crickets, Krig-cts, or little elevations, or were provided with backs, were mounted upon four supporters, or rested upon a square basis of wood. And as we have specimens of all these chairs delineated on the coins of Cunobeline, so we have a cricket particularly exhibited twice upon them in the genuine form which it carries in Lancashire at present". The Romans probably very little improved either the wooden bowls the wooden plates or the wooden chairs of the Britons. All of them perhaps were banished entirely to the houses of the inferior Mancunians. And among the inferior Mancunians have all of them descended nearly to the present period, and have all continued nearly in their original construction.

The vitrification of sandy particles by the force of fire, and the various application of the vitrified matter to domestic uses, form one of the most pleasing discoveries in the whole circle of domestic improvements. The discovery however resulted not in all probability from the creative powers of the human understanding. It was merely the consequence of chance. Such have been almost all the great inventions of man, some incident soliciting his attention, and reason becoming the pupil of contingency. And such was most probably the first invention of glass, sand being vitrified by an accidental fire, and art imitating the work of casualty. Many accidents of this nature must have necessarily happened in the earliest ages of the world, in the first efforts of the pottery, or on the first formation of bricks. And tradition, almost the only information that we can have concerning the commencement of the domestic arts, here concurs with probability, and asserts the first glass to have been actually manufactured by chance". But this event must have happened many ages before the construction of Tyre. And that stately emporium can have no title to the honour of the first discovery. In Tyre however were erected the first public glass-houses that history mentions: and in Tyre was the only staple

of the manufactory for many ages ". The sand of the Tyrian shore, for the space of half a mile about the mouth of the Belus, was peculiarly adapted to the making of glass, being neat and glittering ". And the wide range of the Tyrian commerce necessarily gave a large vent to the productions of the furnace. But before the conquest of Lancashire public glass-houses were erected in Italy, in Spain, in Gaul ", and in Britain. Hence in many parts of Britain have been discovered small annulets of glass, having a narrow perforation and a thick rim, denominated by the remaining Britons *Gleinen Naidroedh* or Glass-adders, and, as the continuing superstitions concerning them demonstrate, once used as talismans among the druids ". And hence in the barrows upon Salisbury Plain, which are certainly older than the invasion of the Romans; and which are probably prior to the encroachments of the Belgæ, beads of glass have been discovered in numbers. Many of them were single and pierced for the introduction of a string, and many were combined together in the making, and twisted round a small rod of the same metal ". Thus proficient as the Britons certainly were in the art of manufacturing annulets and beads of glass, no question can be made but they applied it directly to domestic uses, and formed with it many domestic instruments. And history assures us that they actually did, and that they manufactured a considerable quantity of glass-vessels ". These without doubt, like their annulets, were green, blue, yellow, or black, and many of them curiously streaked with other colours ". And the process in the manufactory of the glass must have been nearly the same without doubt among the Britons, as it was among the Spaniards and the Gauls. The sand of the shores being reduced to a sufficient fineness by art, it was mingled with three-fourths of nitre, and both were melted together. The metal was then poured into other vessels, was left to harden into a mass, and was afterwards replaced in the furnace. There it became clear and transparent in the boiling, and was then figured by blowing or modelled by the lathe into all such vessels as were wanted ".
 And

And the arrival of the Romans must have little improved this curious manufactory of Britain, as they universally preferred silver and gold to glass for the composition of their drinking-vessels ". They made indeed great improvements in their own at Rome during the government of Nero. The bowls and cups of this metal then rivalled the bowls of porcelain in their dearth, and then equalled the cups of chrystal in their clearness ". But these were infinitely too costly for general use. These undoubtedly were never attempted in Britain, and never made their appearance in the island. And the common glasses of the Romans and Roman-Britons must have been infinitely inferior in goodness, and from the few fragments that have been discovered at the stations of the former or the stationary towns of the latter appear to have generally consisted of a clear but greenly tinged metal.

Native amber, once the subject of fabulous absurdities and the occasion of ridiculous contentions, is the exudation of the gummy trees which formerly lined all the northern coast of Germany, and remain in various places upon the margin of the Baltic at present. This beauteous distillation, dropping from its parent boughs, often fell directly into the sea, was often carried from the shore by the retreat of the tide, and was often swept from the banks by the descent of the rivers ". It must therefore have been frequently found, as it is sometimes discovered to the present period, along the margin of our eastern coast ". And the primæval Britons appear to have possessed very considerable quantities of it. This they flattened into squares and molded into circles, and their females strung them as beads and wore them as necklaces ". Nor was this peculiar to the wives and daughters of the Britons. The Gallic women in the north of Italy did the same as late as the æra of Agricola's expedition into Lancashire ". And the Britons formed their amber into several domestic vessels ". In this state of their amber-manufactory were they subdued by the Romans, and nearly in this state they must have continued under them; the Romans only teaching

teaching them in all probability a greater neatness in the figure of their beads and a greater elegance in the shape of their vessels.

The first formation of brass, as we are assured by historical infallibility, was actually prior to the flood, and was discovered even in the seventh generation from Adam". The use of it however was not, as seems generally believed and the Arundelian marbles assert, previous to the knowledge of iron. They were both first known in the same generation, and were both first wrought by the same discoverer". And the knowledge of both must have been afterwards diffused over the world with the diffused colonies of the Noachidae. An acquaintance with the one or the other must have been absolutely necessary to the existence of the colonists, to the clearing away of the woods about their settlements, and to the erection of houses for their habitation. And as the nations in the east appear to have worked their mines of iron and copper in the remotest periods of their history", so the tribes of the primæval Britons in the west appear to have been particularly acquainted with both".

Of all the metals the most beneficial to man is iron. And the veins of it are therefore the most universally diffused. Providence has stored almost every region of the world, and has particularly replenished the hills of Britain, with that useful ore. But the primæval Britons were long unapprized of their native wealth. It was late before any mines of iron were opened in the island. They appear to have been begun only a few years before the descent of Cæsar, and even then were carried on, not by the original Britons, but by the commercial Belgæ". To that period both the Britons and the Belgæ must have received from the continent all the iron that they had among them. And at the period of Cæsar's invasion the quantity which was collected in the island was very insignificant". But iron mines being once discovered, others would be immediately opened. And a considerable manufactory of iron was accordingly established in the kingdom before the reign of Tiberius". In this

must

must many domestic utensils have been formed by the primæval Britons. The iron money of the Britons evinces them to have possessed the secret of casting their iron and stamping it. And the manufactory, which appears to have extended into the farthest regions of the north ¹¹, had certainly learnt the art of hardening the iron into steel. This was a secret well known at this period among their Celtic brethren on the continent. The steel of the Spaniards bore as great a reputation as it bears at present ¹². And in that fairest mirror of the original British, the native language of Ireland; the appellation of steel is not Roman at all, the appellation of Reel is actually and absolutely British. But the manufactory must have been undoubtedly enlarged and the forges must have been undoubtedly multiplied by the Romans. One forge perhaps was erected in the vicinity of every station. And within the western riding of Yorkshire and in the neighbourhood of North-Brierley, amid many beds of cinders heaped up in the adjacent fields, some years ago was found a quantity of Roman coins carefully repositied in one of them ¹³.

When the Britons imported all their iron from the continent, they imported also all their brass. And when they had ceased to introduce the former, they still continued to receive the latter ¹⁴. Their want of the metal remained, and no mines of it were opened in the island ¹⁵. In the earliest ages whose manners have been delineated by the pencil of history, we find the weapons of their warriors invariably framed of this factitious metal. And the most authentic of all the profane records of antiquity for that reason mistakenly dates the first discovery of iron a couple of centuries below the æra of the Trojan war ¹⁶. Every military nation, as such, is naturally studious of brightness in its arms. And the Britons particularly gloried in the neatness of theirs ¹⁷. For this reason the nations of the world in general still fabricated their arms of brass even long after the Arundelian æra for the discovery of iron ¹⁸. For this reason the primæval Britons in particular still continued to import brass from the continent, though they had found iron to be a native of the country, and could have supplied themselves with a sufficient

quantity of it. And for this reason the latter appear to have carefully repositied their brazen weapons in cloth, and to have even provided them with regular cases “.

When the Britons imported their iron and brads from the Gallic continent, they must necessarily have purchased the latter at an easier expence than they procured the former. The Gauls had certainly many large brads-works carried on in the kingdom, but seem to have had few iron forges within it “. And this would naturally induce the Belgæ to be less diligent in their enquiry after the veins of copper and calamine at home, than in their search for the courses of iron ore; though the one was equally discoverable in the island as the other, and lay equally within the Belgic regions of it. Brads being thus cheaper to the Britons than iron, they formed of course some domestic as well as military implements of it. Such domestic utensils were common among the Gauls “. And such were common among the Britons, either imported into the island, as some undoubtedly were, or manufactured within it, as others assuredly were “. The Britons had certainly brads-founderies erected among them, and certainly minted money and fabricated weapons of brads.

In this condition of the brads-works the Romans entered the island. And seeing so great a demand among the Britons for the article of brads, they must speedily have instructed them to discover the materials of it among themselves. This must have unavoidably resulted from the conquest of the Romans. The power of surprizing their new subjects with so unexpected a discovery would naturally stimulate the pride of the Roman intellect. The desire of obliging themselves with so cheap a supply of that useful metal, stationary as they were in the kingdom, would naturally actuate the selfishness of the Roman heart. The veins of copper and the beds of calamine, would be easily found out by an experienced enquirer after them; and the former metal was therefore distinguished among the Britons by the one Roman appellation of Gyprium Koppr or Copper. And many founderies of brads appear to have been established by the Roman-Britons in many parts of the island. Some must have
been

been undoubtedly erected before, one perhaps within the confines of every kingdom and most probably in the vicinity of every capital. One at least must have been necessary in order to supply the armoury of the principality: and one perhaps was sufficient for most of the British states. But several appear to have been now established within every principality, and one perhaps near every stationary town. Two of these forges have been discovered in the single county of Essex and within a narrow portion of it, one of them at Fildes, and the other at Danbury⁴¹. And a third was placed upon Earsley Moor in Yorkshire, twelve miles to the north-west of York and in the neighbourhood of Isurium or Aldborough⁴².

A brass kettle, the workmanship in all probability of a British or Roman-British foundery in the neighbourhood of Manchester, was some years ago discovered in one of our Mancunian mosses, and is now lodged among the petty curiosities of our Mancunian library. It is about five inches and a half in diameter and two and a half in depth, and is fitted with a flat handle of brass. And the metal of this skillet, like the metal of the British coins and the British battle-axes, is mixed with a quantity of lead. Such a mixture was requisite to make the brass sufficiently obedient to the worker's tool. The proportion of the temperature was the same in Italy and Gaul, being eight pounds of lead to one hundred of brass⁴³, and nearly quadrating with the proportion observed at present. But the paleness of the metal in the axes the coins and the skillet evinces the proportion in Britain to have been very different. And the lead of all must be nearly as Dr. Richardson has estimated it to be in some, one full third of the whole composition⁴⁴.

⁴¹ Cicero's Fam. Epist. lib. vii. E. 7, and Sidonius Apollinaris (Sirmondus) carmen 23 and lin. 306 and 351.—⁴² Borlase's Coins N° 22, and Camden class 2. N° 30.—⁴³ Ossian vol. I. p. 11.—⁴⁴ Stukeley's Stonehenge p. 44 and plate, Borlase p. 233 and plate 18, and Wright's Louthiana b. iii. plate 2.—⁴⁵ B. I. ch. vii. f. 2.

—⁶ Strabo p. 265.—⁷ Pliny lib. xxxv. c. 12. vel quæ rotæ fiunt, and the bowl mentioned before in b. I. ch. ii. f. 3.—The glazed earthen rings of Camden c. 815 must have been Roman-British.—⁸ Pegge's Coins class 4, C, class 5. N° 4, and class 6. N° 2.—⁹ Class 2. N° 3. and class 3. N° 1 and 6.—¹⁰ Diodorus p. 351.—¹¹ Pegge class 4. N° 1 and 3.—¹² Pliny lib. xxxvi. c. 26.—¹³ Ibid.—¹⁴ Ibid.—¹⁵ Camden c. 815.—¹⁶ Stukeley's Abury p. 26 and 43 and 45, and Stonehenge p. 45 and plate 32 and 4.—¹⁷ Strabo p. 307, *καλὰ σκευή*. These and the accompanying words have been applied by some to mean, not what were made by the Britons, but what were imported into Britain. But the nature of the other particulars mentioned by Strabo is a sufficient proof to the contrary. They are such as could be manufactured only by the Britons.—¹⁸ Stonehenge p. 45, and Camden c. 815.—¹⁹ Pliny lib. xxxvi. c. 26.—²⁰ Ibid.—²¹ Ibid.—²² See Pliny lib. xxxvii. c. 2, and Tacitus de Mor. Germ. c. 45.—²³ Diodorus p. 348, Camden p. 350 and 713, and Dale's Harwich p. 112 and 275.—²⁴ Diodorus *ibid.* and Strabo p. 307, and Abury p. 44, and Stonehenge p. 45 and plate 32.—²⁵ Pliny lib. xxxvii. c. 3.—²⁶ Strabo p. 307.—²⁷ Genesis ch. iv.—²⁸ Deuteronomy ch. viii. See also ch. iii.—²⁹ Cæsar p. 88.—How mistaken therefore are Montfaucon, Borlase, and all the antiquarians, in trusting to the Arundelian marbles for the æra of the first formation of brass, grossly overlooking the positive and express accounts of inspiration!—³⁰ Cæsar p. 88.—³¹ Strabo p. 305.—³² Ossian vol. I. p. 14, 55, and 62.—³³ Pliny lib. xxxiv. c. 14, Diodorus p. 356, and Martial lib. iv. E. 55.—³⁴ Dr. Richardson's Letter in Leland vol. IX.—³⁵ Cæsar p. 88.—³⁶ Strabo p. 305.—³⁷ Arundelian Marbles in Prideaux p. 163 &c.—³⁸ Solinus c. 22.—³⁹ Borlase b. iii. ch. 13.—⁴⁰ Ibid.—⁴¹ Pliny lib. xxxiv. c. 8 and 14.—⁴² Strabo p. 265 and Diodorus p. 35.—⁴³ Strabo p. 265.—⁴⁴ Borlase b. iii. c. 13.—⁴⁵ Ibid.—⁴⁶ Pliny lib. xxxiv. c. 8.—⁴⁷ Leland vol. IX. See Itin. Cur. p. 55 for this kettle.

III.

IN this state of the British manufactories, when the hills of Britain were found to be replenished, as even in the third century they were actually discovered to abound, with a rich variety of all sorts of metals¹; the primæval Britons of Lancashire, and their brethren in the other parts of the island, must have slept upon skins of beasts, and have lain upon the floor of their apartments². This must have been the practice universally in the first ages. This was originally the practice of the Greeks and the Romans in particular³. But the present example of the Romans suggested to the Sistuntii the use, and the present introduction of agriculture supplied the Sistuntii with the means, of the neater conveniency, of straw-beds. For many ages the beds of the Romans were constantly composed of straw, and straw still formed the beds of the soldiers and the officers at the conquest of Lancashire⁴. From them the Britons in general and the Mancunians in particular must have learnt the use of straw-beds at this period; and with both it continued for many centuries afterwards. Straw was used even in the royal bedrooms of England as late as the conclusion of the thirteenth century⁵. Most of our Mancunian peasants use beds of chaff at present. And straw-beds remain general in France and in Italy to the present moment. But at this period the bed was no longer suffered to rest upon the ground. The better mode that had very antiently prevailed in the east, and that had long before been introduced into Italy, was now adopted in Britain, and the bed was mounted upon pedestals⁶.

The hearth of the primæval Britons seems to have been fixed in the middle of their great halls, being pretty certainly nothing more than a large stone, depressed perhaps a little below the level of the floor, and thereby adapted to contain the ashes. But this must have been now changed for a portable fire-pan, raised upon low supporters, and fitted with a circular grating of bars.

Such

Such were the fire-hearths of the Gauls in the first century'. Such were the fire-hearths of the Welch in the 10th'. And such have continued among us very nearly to the present. These were large enough among the Gauls to allow the imposition of two or three caldrons upon them, and to admit the arrangement of two or three spits before them'. And such appears from the mode so lately remaining among us to have been equally the case among the Britons in the hour of hospitality; equally in England and in Gaul the guests being seated by the fire, and the caldrons being all charged and the spits all loaded with entire joints of meat".

The firing of the primæval Britons was certainly wood. The firing of the Roman Britons must have been wood and charcoal. The native Romans were certainly ignorant of that black inflammable fuel which we now denominate Coal. There are no beds of it at all within the compass of Italy. The great line of that fossil seems to sweep away round the globe from North-east to South-west, not ranging at a distance even from the south-easterly regions of our own island, as is generally imagined, but actually visiting France and yet avoiding Italy. But the primæval Britons must have certainly used it. In the district particularly of our own Mancunium, to whose soil nature has happily committed the precious deposit and in whose cells providence has kindly treasured up an inexhaustible abundance of it, the Britons could not have remained unapprized of the agreeable combustible around them. The Mancunian rivulets not unfrequently bring down fragments of coal from their native mountains, the extremities of the fuel often rising into day-light, and little pieces being washed away by the neighbouring waters. And in the long and winding course of these various currents the Britons must naturally have soon marked the shining jetty stones in the channel, and by the aid of accident or the force of reflection have found out the considerable utility of them. But we can advance still nearer to a certainty. Several pieces of coal were found a few years ago in the bed of sand beneath the Roman road to Ribchester, when both were dug up at the construction of Mr. Phillips's house in the Quay-street. Two or three of them
were

were as large as hen-eggs. And others were discovered in the same bed of sand sixty yards to the west of the road in the year 1770. But, what is still more remarkable, the number of pieces under the Roman road was no less than thirty or forty, and a quantity of Slack or small powdery coal was actually discovered with them. These two significant circumstances fully evince the coaly fragments not to have been brought by the currents from the hills, and to have been afterwards laid upon the ground on which they were discovered. They must have been all derived immediately from the quarry by the same hands that lodged them upon the spot. The large pieces must have been variously dispersed, if they had ever been rolled along a channel. And the slack must have been absolutely dissipated entirely, if it had ever been shifted by a current. They must have been all lodged upon the spot before the road of the Romans covered it. That ground being in the immediate neighbourhood of Mancunion, the Britons had there reposed a quantity of coals for the use of the garrison, and many of the smaller pieces and some of the slack were naturally buried in the soft sand upon which they were laid. That the primæval Britons were acquainted with the black combustible which is generated in the bowels of the earth, is evident from the distinguishing appellation for it amongst us at present, Coal, which is certainly not Saxon and is as certainly British, which must have been transmitted from the Britons to the Saxons and us, and which subsists among the Irish in their Gual to this day. And that the primæval Britons made use of coal in the Castle-field, is evident from the cindery dross, the certain and actual refuse of some considerable coal-fire, which has been lately discovered in the Castle-field. It was found about four or five years ago, a largish quantity of it lying in a pit three or four feet deep in the ground, and contiguous to the Roman road at the extremity of the field. It was also found about four or five years ago on cutting down the Roman road at the same point from the surface to the base, and still to this day more imperfectly appears in the open curious front of the Roman road, a remarkable seam of black rubbish extending

for several yards betwixt two courses of gravel, one a 'yard' in height above and the other about a foot in depth below, spreading about two inches in thickness at the northern end, where the pit was found, and regularly narrowing from it across the face of the road. This had evidently therefore been thrown upon the road by the Romans from the materials of the pit upon one side of it, as they cast up the neighbouring ground to form the basis of the road. And this naturally disposed itself, as it flew from the shovel, in the thickest course immediately under the hand, and in the thinnest layer at the farthest extremity from it. I have collected cinders myself from the seam, mixed with some weighty metallic matter that shewed the coal-fire to have belonged to some forge in the Castle-field. And I have myself picked out several large fragments of rock from the gravel immediately under the seam, which must have been brought from the neighbouring Medlock and laid upon the line of the road before it. And the Romans and the Saxons appear actually and equally using coal in the provinces of Britain. Within the West-Riding of Yorkshire and in the neighbourhood of North-Brierley, amid many beds of coal-cinders heaped up in the adjacent fields, some years ago was found a quantity of Roman coins very carefully repositied in one of them¹¹. And as early as the year 852 a grant was made of some lands by the abbey of Peterborough, under the reservation of certain boons and payments in kind to the monastery, one night's entertainment, thirty shillings, and one horse, ten vessels of Welch ale, six hundred loaves, two oxen ready-killed, and two casks of common ale, sixty cart-loads of wood, and twelve of *gnæran* fossil or pit coal¹². The extensive beds of coal therefore, with which the kingdom of England in general and the precincts of Manchester in particular are so happily stored, must have been first noticed by the skill and first opened by the labour of the Britons, and some time before the arrival of the Romans among us. And the nearer quarries in the concurring confines of Bradford Newton and Manchester must naturally have first attracted the notice, and have first invited the inquiries, of the Britons. The current of
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the Medlock that runs betwixt the beds of the minerals and washes, the sides of the quarries would certainly bring down specimens of their native wealth, would lodge many of them around the foot of the Castle-field, and would allure the Britons successively to a careful collection of the one and to a curious inquisition after the other. But, even for ages after the discovery, wood continued to compose the principal firing of the nation. Thus in the little rental of the above-mentioned estate we see sixty cart-loads of wood reserved for the abbey and only twelve of coal. Wood must have naturally continued the principal firing of the kingdom as long as the forests and thickets continued to present their ready fuel to the hand. And such it remained at Manchester to the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, notwithstanding the discovery of another species of fuel which was absolutely as accessible as wood. This is that loose fibrous substance which our Mancunian mosses have for ages afforded us in such luxurious plenty, and which we find so convenient in our Mancunian houses¹¹. This most inflammable of all fuel would naturally be discovered before the coal, and must have been known to the primæval Britons. But it makes its first appearance in history together with coal, and is equally mentioned with it in the Peterborough rental, the sixty cart-loads of wood and the twelve of fossil coal being accompanied with six of *geapda*, earth, or turf. And to the green faggot, the dried billet, the turf, and the coal of their former fires the Britons now learned to add the charcoal of the Romans. The method which the Romans now taught them of charking the coal continues essentially the same to the present moment. The young timber which was intended for charcoal being cut into billets and heaped into a pile, it was covered over with a structure of clay. The fire was then lighted within the mimic furnace. The hardening coat of the clay was pierced with long poles. And the heat and the smoke were gradually emitted together¹².

The primæval Britons appear to have carefully worked their mines of lead, and to have extracted great quantities of metal.

from them". And not only the Belgic but the aboriginal Britons were engaged in this employ. The mines of the Silly isles were worked by the one, and the riches of the Peak were collected by the other". The lead-ore lay much more obvious to the notice and much more accessible to the labour of the inhabitants, than either the iron or the copper. The lead was equally found at this period in France and in Spain. But the search for it in both countries was attended with much greater trouble and expence than it was in Britain. Here veins of it lay immediately below the surface of the ground, and branched out in so great an abundance, that a very short period before the reduction of Lancashire, conquered as the Britons of Silly and of the Peak had then both been by the Romans, but still subjected, as I have said before, to the legislative authority of their respective sovereigns, a law was made by the kings to restrict the working of the mines and to prevent the overstocking of the market". With this metal the primæval Britons tempered the brass of their skillets their arms and their coins. And with this therefore they must have made many of their domestic vessels. Lead and tin were for several ages the only metals that they had within themselves. And when the Romans entered the county of Chester they found the metal very plentiful among the inhabitants, and raised a rudely magnificent trophy with it, fixing more than twenty inscribed plates upon poles, and erecting them on the ground where they had defeated the Britons.

The tin of the Britons was the most remarkable production of their island. Found both in Spain and in Portugal, it was found much more plentifully in Britain.". Being collected in the sand or glebe, it was purified with water from the adhering earth, was fused in their furnaces, and was beaten into squares". This the primæval Britons in all probability, this the Roman Britons most assuredly, worked up into many domestic utensils, cups, basons, and pitchers. Some such have been safely transmitted to the present age. A bason of this mimic silver was found a few years ago in Cornwall, four inches and an half in diameter

diameter at the brim and two and a half at the bottom, having a small fluting round the outside of the upper part, and presenting a Roman inscription upon its flat bottom ". And a pitcher has been also discovered of the same metal, containing above four quarts and an half, gradually narrowing to the brim, and fitted with an handle ". Nor was this all the use that the Britons must have made of their tin. Taught perhaps by themselves alone, instructed perhaps by their Roman masters, they must have coated over the inside of their brazen vessels with a thin covering of tin, and have thereby prevented the disagreeing tincture of brass ". Receiving the knowledge perhaps directly from the Gauls, deriving it perhaps immediately from the Romans, the Britons must have probably practised the curious art which the Gauls had discovered of incorporating tin so intimately into brass, that the work had all the hardness of the latter and almost all the beauty of the former ",

But the Romans also taught the Britons to combine two or three of their metals together, and with them to form another which should be more beautiful in its appearance and more convenient in its use than any of them singly. This is that agreeable appendage of our tables which the Romans called *Argentarium* or the silvery metal, and which we now denominate Pewter ". Of this metal the primæval Britons must have been undoubtedly ignorant. With this metal even the Romans became acquainted only a very little time before the surrendery of Mancinion to Agricola ". And the Romans must have certainly introduced it to the knowledge of the Britons; several pieces of pewter having been discovered within the areas of the Roman stations in Britain. I have a small fragment of Roman pewter in my own possession. It was discovered in 1766 within a meadow at Aldchester in Oxfordshire, which the general nature of the ground and the particular vicinity of it to the area of the town sufficiently demonstrate to have been the site of the station. And it was even picked up within the walls of a ruined building, which was raised a little above the level of the meadow, and which the discovery of a tessellated pavement above

and of an hypocaust in one part below plainly proved to have been the actual prætorium of the station. But a much larger piece was discovered about sixty years ago at Ebchester in the county of Durham, some vain searchers after other sort of treasure digging into the bank of the castrum, and lighting upon a considerable quantity of a melted metal, which at first they naturally supposed to be silver, but which they afterwards found to be pewter¹. The metals that were mixed together in the composition of the Roman pewter at first were either brass and tin, or tin and lead; as the proportion in which they were mixed was one third of brass to the tin, and one half or one third of tin to the lead². And this factitious metal was sold at Rome soon after its first appearance at the rate of four shillings and ten pence a pound³. But this was only the common rate of the tin at Rome; and even the lead was sold at two shillings and seven pence a pound⁴. And all the three metals must have been considerably cheaper in Britain, as Britain was the staple of the two principal constituents of the Roman pewter, tin and lead, and as the expences of the long carriage from Britain to Rome must have greatly enhanced the original price.

¹ Solinus c. xxii. metallorum largam variamque copiam. quibus undique generum pollet venis locupletibus.—² Diodorus p. 351.—³ See Bulengerius c. xxix. in tom. 12. Grævius.—⁴ Pliny lib. viii. c. 48. The beds of the Roman gentry at this period were generally filled with feathers, and the beds of the inns with the soft down of reeds, pro plumâ strata cauponarum replet. Pliny lib. xvi. c. 36.—⁵ See book I. c. 8. f. 2. and the notes for the kings of Wales using straw-beds in the tenth century and the kings of England in the thirteenth.—⁶ Genesis c. xlix. and Bede lib. iii. c. 27.—⁷ Diodorus p. 351.—⁸ Howel lib. ii. c. 1. a. 6. ⁹ Diodorus p. 351.—¹⁰ Ibid.—¹¹ Dr. Richardson's Letter in Le-land vol. ix and Saxon Chron.—¹² Our moors of Turbary are particularly mentioned, in a record of 1322, and are declared to be propter largitatem et diversitatem entirely unmeasured. And the

the people had a right of common in them.—¹ Pliny lib. xvi. c. 6.—² Strabo p. 265.—³ Cæsar p. 88 *Mediterraneis*, and Strabo p. 265.—⁴ Pliny lib. xxxiv. c. 17 *ultrò*.—⁵ Pliny lib. xxxiv. c. 16.—⁶ Pliny *ibid.* and Diodorus p. 347.—⁷ Phil. Transf. 1759, part I. p. 13.—⁸ *Ibid.*—⁹ Pliny lib. xxxiv. c. 17.—¹⁰ *Ibid.*—¹¹ *Ibid.*—¹² *Ibid.* Nunc adulteratur.—¹³ Phil. Transf. 1702 and 1703. N° 6.—¹⁴ Pliny *ibid.*—¹⁵ *Ibid.*

V.

AT the period of Cæsar's expedition into the island, the wild woods of the Britons were replenished nearly with the same varieties of timber as the forests of the Gauls¹. But both received a considerable addition of foreign trees from the Romans. The beech and the fir are asserted by Cæsar to have been both of them absolute strangers to Britain at that remarkable period². This however the overweening fondness of antiquarianism has induced the generality of our critics to disbelieve; and they have appealed against it to the beech-covered hills of the Chiltern, to the fir-topped mountains of Scotland, and to the fir-apples discovered in the draining our Marton Mere³. But these arguments surely are not of sufficient moment. Cæsar has explicitly asserted the fact. Cæsar appears in general to have gained very accurate informations concerning the island. And if in such cases the credit of cotemporary relations and the authority of peremptory assertions were to be evacuated by hypothetical reasonings and problematical arguments, the faith of records would be destroyed at once, and the authenticity of history would be utterly annihilated. I cannot however subscribe entirely to the relation of Cæsar. Other and more forceable arguments present themselves to the inquisitive mind, that supersede the great authority of Cæsar, and shew one of the trees to be certainly a native of Britain.

Among the many Roman names for the fir in the British language, there are three which are purely and absolutely British. The Scotch distinguish the fir by the British appellation of *Gius*,
the

the Irish by the British appellation of *Ginnabus*, and the Welch by the British appellation of *Fynidwydh*. Had the fir been originally introduced into the fields of Britain by the Romans, all the British appropriated appellations of it must have been, as some of them evidently are, the mere derivatives of the Roman *Abies*, *Z-aban*, *S-ibuydh*, *S-abin*, and *S-abin*. And the existence of one British appropriated appellation for the fir is a strong argument in itself, that the tree was not introduced by the Romans, that the tree was originally British.

Firs actually appear as early as the third century in the unromanized regions of Caledonia and Ireland, and appear as the acknowledged aborigines of the country. Firs are frequently mentioned in the poems of the Caledonian bard, not as plants seen by him on the continent or in the provinces, not merely as forming the equivocal imagery of a similitude, but as actually and antiently growing in both. The spear of a warrior, says an Irishman in Ulster, pointing to a neighbouring tree, "is like that blasted fir:" and it is compared by another to the fir of Slimora particularly, a mountain in the north of Ireland. And the tomb of a fallen warrior upon the western shore of Caledonia is thus described from the reality by the bard: "Dost thou not behold, Malvina, a rock with its head of heath? Three aged firs bend from its face; green is the narrow plain at its feet."

The fir is also discovered in our Mancunian mosses together with the birch and the oak, as frequent as the oak, and much more frequent than the birch. The fir of our mosses is not, as the wild hypothesis of some asserts it to be, a mere mimicry of the natural fir, merely an oak or a birch that, lying for ages in the unctuous mass, has discharged itself of all its original properties, and has adopted all the characteristic properties of the fir. Had this been the case, it could not possibly be distinguished from the oak or the birch, and all the trees of our mosses must have been equally and absolutely firs. The fir is the only tree of our mosses that exhibits a resinous quality. And the fir of our mosses is as much discriminated to the eye by the peculiar nature of its grain, as the oak or the birch. Nor is

this all. The fir is perpetually discovered in such of our mosses particularly as were demonstrably prior to the settlement of the Romans among us. It is discovered in such mosses as appear to the present period actually traversed by the roads of the Romans. It is discovered immediately adjoining to the road and absolutely on both sides of it. Thus is the fir found very frequent in the moss of Failsworth, close to either margin of the Street, and mingled with oaks and birches. And as the road demonstrates the moss to have been formed before the settlement of the Romans at Manchester, so the trees discovered in the moss must have been all equally cotemporary with it, and all equally with it prior to the settlement of the Romans at Manchester. This argument carries a decisive authority with it. But we can prosecute it fairly up to demonstration. The fir has been discovered in our mosses, not only in such parts as are immediately contiguous to the Roman roads over them, but in such as are actually occupied and covered with the line of the Roman roads, and in the black spongy earth immediately beneath the Roman gravel. It has been very recently dug up by myself under the roots of the road over Failsworth Moss. And I have now in my own possession two pieces of tried genuine fir that were bedded with the remains of a birch-tree one yard and a half in the mossy soil and three yards under the crown of the Roman gravel.

These are three arguments which are all sufficiently convincing of themselves. These are three arguments which, springing from as many different sources, all happily unite together in one common channel, and form together an irresistible tide of evidence. And a fact which relates to the remotest antiquity, and which is asserted against the highest historical authority, cannot be too powerfully demonstrated. The fir then was one of the [trees of Britain before the arrival of the Romans among us. But the beech was not. We have the positive testimony of Cæsar, that the beech was unknown to the island at the period of his own invasion. We have no demonstrative reasons, we have no forcible arguments, we have no arguments at all, against it.

And

And we have the strong attestation of the British language in direct confirmation of it, all the British terms for the beech being evidently and merely Roman, Faighe, Faghe, or Faydh. The Romans found the fir a native of the island. But the Romans introduced the beech and their colonies together.

Nor was this the only tree which the Romans imported into Britain. They first introduced among us, and from their hands did our forests first receive, as the British and present names of the trees sufficiently and equally evince, the Platanus or plane, the Tilia or teil, the Buxus or box, the Ulmus or elm, and the Populus or poplar. And the plane, originally a native of Asia, and transplanted into Sicily, soon passed over the Strait into Italy, and before the year 79 had reached the most northerly shore of Gaul ⁵.

The principal production of our orchards at present is derived to us from the primæval Britons, and in the Welch the Cornish the Armorican and the Irish languages is invariably denominated the Avall, Aball, or apple. This fruitage seems to have been originally imported into Britain by the first colonies of the Britons in general and by the British Hædui of Somersetshire in particular. Hence we find the present site of the well-known Glastonbury to have been distinguished, before the arrival of the Romans, by the discriminating title of Avallonia or the Apple-orchard ⁶. And the soft keen relish of the fruit so strongly recommended it to the Britons, that another Avellana arose in the north of England ⁷. And before the third century the fruit appears to have been disseminated over the island, and to have even stocked the distant and unromanized regions of Shetland with large plantations of the trees ⁸. But to the native and the imported fruit-trees of the British garden the Romans naturally added several plants. These must have been the Pyrus or pear, the Prunum Damascenum or damascene, the Cerasus or cherry, the Arbor Persica, perch, or peach, the Aprica or apricot ⁹, and the Cydonia or quince. Pears, the original production probably of most of the southerly countries, abounded particularly in Italy, and, as sufficiently appears from the Roman name of the fruit

fruit in Wales in Bretagne in Ireland and in England, Per, Peren, Piorra, and Pear, were brought by the Romans into Britain. But Ceraſſ, Keres, or cherries were the native growth of Pontus and of Egypt, and were firſt introduced into the weſt by Lucullus, the conqueror of the former; being tranſplanted by him into Italy in the ſeventy-third year before the Chriſtian æra, and being carried by others into Britain upon the firſt ſettlement of the Romans and within five years after the firſt permanent conqueſt within it ". The damaſcene had been long taken from the vicinity of its native Damafcus, and long familiarized to the climate of Italy, when the Romans firſt entered the county of Lancaſter "; and the Britiſh appellation of it, Daimſhin or Damſon, ſtill remaining among the Iriſh and ourſelves, evinces it to have been introduced into Britain by the Romans. The quince was originally the produce of the Cretan ſhores ". And the peach, tranſplanted early from its own Perſia into Egypt, but introduced very late into the weſt, was very common in Gaul about the epoch of Agricola's conqueſts in Britain ". And to theſe we may ſubjoin the Morus, Muyar, or mulberry, the Caſtanea, Kaſtanuydh, or cheſnut, the Ficus, Fik, or fig, the Sorbus or ſervis, and the Meſpilus or medlar ". The cheſnut was originally the produce of Sardis in the Leſſer Aſia: but before the reign of Veſpaſian it was cultivated with great ſucceſs at Tarentum and at Naples ". And the medlar was unknown to the Romans at the period of the laſt Punic war, and was originally brought into the weſt from Greece ".

The beds of the Britiſh garden at firſt muſt have been replenished only with the flowers that naturally checkered the ſlopes of our hills, and with the plants that naturally ſkirted the edges of our woods. But the Roman garden ſoon lent its friendly aſſiſtance, and tranſmitted ſome of its own plants and flowers into Britain. There, even beneath the greater moiſture of the Britiſh ſoil and the fainter livelineſs of the Britiſh ſun, they took root in the iſland, and became familiarized to the climate. The latter particularly are now ſo thoroughly diſſeminated over the country, ſhoot up ſo generally under the ſhelter of our hedges,

and fringe so commonly the hills of our vallies, that they are constantly considered as the genuine natives of the soil. But the names of both sufficiently denote their origin, and their Roman appellations betray their Roman extraction. Such are the British Rhos or the English rose, the Lili or lily, the Violed or violet, the Tim or thyme, the Rosmarinum, Rhosmari, or rosemary, the Papaver, Pabi, or poppy, and many others. The best roses in Europe were the Italian, and the best in Italy were the Prænestine and the Campanian¹⁹. And thyme in the days of Vespasian so greatly overspread the stony plains in the province of Narbonne, that many thousands of cattle were brought every year from the distant parts of the country to fatten upon it²⁰. Such also were the more numerous and more beneficial plants and seeds of the Radix or radish, the asparagus, the cucumber, and the melon, of Pifa, Pis, Pez, or peas, Fabæ, Faens, or beans; and Lectucae or lettuces, and of mint, bete, fennel, and many others. The asparagus was a great favourite among the Romans, was studiously cultivated by their gardeners, and was fed to so enormous a size in the gardens of Ravenna that three of them only were actually a pound in weight²¹. The cucumber of the provinces was much larger than the cucumber of Italy, which was equally green and small, and which was so greatly esteemed by Tiberius, that he ordered pots of them to be fixed upon carriages and regularly wheeled into the sun from their sheds, that he might have a cucumber every day in the summer²². And lettuces were supposed to be uncommonly salutary by the Romans after the great cure which Musa effected with a lettuce upon the person of Augustus, when the emperor's life was exposed to the most imminent danger, and when his physician boldly broke through all the rules of the practice in order to prescribe it for him²³.

Corn must have been originally the spontaneous produce of the new-created earth; and the first obvious method of reducing it into flour for bread must have been by the simple expedient of pounding. This must have been for ages the only method that was practised by the various descendants of Adam, and actually continued in use among the Romans below the æra of the reign.

of Vespasian ²¹. But this process was very early improved by the application of a grinding power and the introduction of mill-stones. The improvement, like most of the common refinements in domestic life, was probably the invention of the antediluvian world, and was certainly used in some of the earliest ages after it ²². The improvement, like most of the common refinements in domestic life, was equally known in the east and adopted in the west. Hence the Gauls, hence the Britons, appear to have been familiarly acquainted with the use of hand-mills before the period of their submission to the Romans ²³; the Britons particularly distinguishing them, as we their successors distinguish them at present, by the simple appellation of Querns, Cairns, or Stones. But to these the querns or hand-mills of our British ancestors the Romans added, as they had previously added to their own, the very useful invention of water-mills. For this discovery the world is pretty certainly indebted to the improving powers of the Roman genius; and the machine was pretty common in Italy before the conquest of Lancashire ²⁴. This therefore the Romans must have necessarily introduced with their many other refinements among us. And that they actually introduced it, the British appellation of a water-mill sufficiently evinces of itself; the Melin of the Welch and Cornish, the Mull, Meill, and Melin of the Armoricans, and the Muilean and Muilind of the Irish, being all equally and evidently derived from the Roman Mola and Molendinum. The subject Britons universally adopted the Roman name, but applied it, as we their successors apply it at present, only to the Roman mill; still distinguishing their own original mill, as we distinguish it, by its own original denomination of a Quern. A Roman or water mill was assuredly erected at every stationary town in the kingdom. A Roman or water mill was certainly erected at Mancunium, serving equally the purposes of the town and the uses of the garrison. And one alone would be sufficient, as the use of hand-mills still remained very common in both, many such having been found about the site of the station particularly,

and the use of them in general having descended among us very nearly to the present period. Such it would be peculiarly necessary to have in the station, that the garrison might be prudently provided against a siege. And the Mancunian water-mill was necessarily planted immediately below the station and the town, and upon the rocky channel of the Medlock. There, a little above the antient ford, the sluice of the mill was accidentally discovered about four and twenty years ago. There, on the margin of Dyer's Croft and opposite to Mr. Markland's Constructions, the current of the Medlock, accidentally swelled with the rains and obstructed in its course by a dam, broke down the northern bank, swept away a venerable oak upon the edge of it, and disclosed a long tunnel in the rock beneath. This tunnel I have since laid open in part with a spade. It appeared entirely uncovered at the top, was about one yard in width and another in depth, but gradually narrowed to the bottom. The sides shewed everywhere the marks of the tool upon the rock, and the course of it was parallel with the channel. It was bared by the torrent only for twenty-five yards in length, but must have been evidently continued for several yards further, having originally begun, as the nature of the ground evinces, just above the large curvature in the channel of the Medlock.

For the first five or six centuries of the Roman state there were no public bread-bakers in the city of Rome". They were first introduced into Rome from the East, at the conclusion of the war with Perses, and about the year 167 before the nativity of Christ". And before the conclusion of the first century after the Nativity the Roman families were supplied by them regularly every morning with fresh loaves for breakfast". But the Romans did not introduce them into Mancunium, the Latin name of a bread-baker being utterly unknown to the British language in general, and bread-bakers being even recently introduced into Manchester in particular. Among the primitive Britons of the South, who raised corn and formed it into bread, the

the same custom pretty certainly obtained as prevailed originally among the Romans and many other nations", and as continued nearly to the present period among the Mancunians. The provision of bread for every family was left entirely to the domestic attentions of the women in it". And the bread was baked by them upon stones, which the Britons denominated Greidiols and we still denominate Gredles. But as it appears at once from the kiln-burnt pottery which has been discovered in the British sepulchers, and from the British appellation of an Odyn or oven remaining among us at present, that furnaces for baking were generally known among the primæval Britons, an odyn must have been erected at the mansion of each British baron for the use of himself and his retainers. And when the baron and his retainers removed into the vicinity of a Roman station, the oven must have been re-erected with the mansion, and the public bakehouses of our towns must have commenced at the first formation of them. One bakehouse must have been constructed, as I have previously shewn one mill to have been erected, for the public service of all the Mancunian families. One bakehouse and one mill appear to have been equally and immemorially established in the town; and the inhabitants of it appear to have been equally and immemorially accustomed to bake at the one and to grind at the other". Both therefore must have been undoubtedly erected at the first introduction of ovens and of water-mills into the county. The similarity of two such appointments in particular refers the consideration directly to one and the same origin for both principles. The nature of all such appointments in general refers the consideration directly to the first origin and the actual introduction of both the implements. And as the same establishments prevailed equally in many other parts of the North, and obtained pretty certainly over all the ample extent of Roman Britain, the same erections must have been equally made at every stationary town in the kingdom.

¹ Cæsar p. 88.—² Plot's Staffordshire p. 216 &c. and Camden c. 967.—³ Ossian vol. i. p. 2. and vol. ii. p. 5.—⁴ Vol. i. p. 127.—⁵ Pliny lib. xii. c. 1.—⁶ Richard p. 19.—⁷ Ravennas, Banna, Uxelludiano, Aval-aria or (as both the MS. in the French King's library and the Vatican MS. agree to read the name) Avalana. And see an extract from Myrdhin Wyllit, a poet of the sixth century, where the apples of it are praised, in Evans p. 77.—⁸ Solinus c. xxii.—⁹ This is provincially pronounced in Lancashire, not Apricot, but Apricock, with that original and British termination which forms Capet into Coppock, Mallet into Mollock, &c.—¹⁰ Pliny lib. xv. c. 25.—¹¹ Lib. xv. c. 43.—¹² Lib. xiii. c. 19. and lib. xv. c. 11.—¹³ Lib. xv. c. 12 and 13.—¹⁴ Lib. xv. c. 20, 23, and 24.—¹⁵ Lib. xv. c. 23.—¹⁶ Lib. xv. c. 20.—¹⁷ Lib. xxi. c. 4.—¹⁸ Lib. xxi. c. 10.—¹⁹ Lib. xix. c. 4 and 8.—²⁰ Lib. xix. c. 5.—²¹ Lib. xix. c. 8.—²² Lib. xviii. c. 10.—²³ Exodus c. xi. and Deuteron. c. xxiv.—²⁴ Cæsar p. 3. of the Helvetic Gauls, *molita cibaria*, and Strabo p. 287, *μυλας*.—²⁵ Pliny lib. xviii. c. 10. *Major pars Italiae ruidio utitur pilo, rotis etiam quas aqua verset obiter, et molat*; and Palladius lib. i. c. 42. *Si aquae copia est, fufora balnearum debent pistrina suscipere, ut, ibi formatis aquariis melis, sine animalium vel hominum labore frumenta frangantur*.—²⁶ Pliny lib. xviii. c. 11.—²⁷ Ibid.—²⁸ Martial lib. xiv. E. 223.—²⁹ Pliny ibid.—³⁰ The women among the Saxons used generally to brew as well as to bake. Of Hereford it is recorded in Doomsday, that *cujuscunque uxor brazabat intus et extra civitatem dabat x denarios per consuetudinem* to the king, the lord of the town (Gale's xv Scriptures vol. i. p. 769. from Doomsday Book). And the Brewer in all our old statutes is always implied to be a woman. So in the great ordinance for bakers brewers and others during the reigns of Henry III. and Edward I. and II. the brewer is constantly denominated *Braciatrix*, quæ &c. c. 6.—³¹ See B. II. c. v. f. 2.

IV.

AMONG the various trees which the Romans introduced into Britain the most curious undoubtedly was the vine. This is well known to have been very common in Britain three or four ages ago, there being scarcely a single castle or a particular monastery in the kingdom which had not a vineyard belonging to it. The county of Gloucester is particularly commended by Malmesbury in the twelfth century as excelling all the counties of the kingdom in the number and in the goodness of its vineyards¹. Vineyards are frequently noticed in the descriptive accounts of Doomsday². And the vineyards of England are actually mentioned by Bede as early as the commencement of the eighth century³. That the Romans were the original introducers of the plant, we need no other testimony than the British appellations of it. Being brought by the Romans into Gaul⁴, it was denominated the Vinum or Vigne tree by the natives. Being brought by the Romans into Britain, it was similarly denominated by the inhabitants the Guin-uydhen the Guin-bren the Guin-ien or the Fion-ras; as it is still called in the Welch the Cornish the Armorican and the Irish dialects. These appellations, like the Gallic Vigne, do not directly signify the Vitis or vine, but speak of it indirectly and characteristically as the Wine-tree. And as in general these appellations evince the Romans to have been the first planters of vines in both kingdoms, so this little peculiarity in particular pretty plainly declares the inhabitants of both to have been acquainted with the liquor some time before they adopted the tree. Such would naturally be the case of both. Such appears to have been actually the case of the Gauls⁵. And the Caledonian Britons, who were certainly strangers to the vine, were well acquainted with the liquor before the middle of the third century⁶. As the former was certainly not introduced into Britain till the second century⁷, so was it certainly introduced before the

the close of the third. And as it must have been for ages confined within the pale of the Roman government, so was it transplanted into Ireland before the beginning of the eighth century⁹. But the grape, or as with an agreeable and native simplicity it was called by the Britons the Corn of the Tree the Wine-grane and the Apple of the Vine, was not, as it now is, merely raised for the uses of the table. All the arts of the vigneron would naturally be introduced with the vine. They were carried with it into Gaul. And that they came together into Britain, the good knowledge which the Caledonians appear to have had of the liquor is a strong presumptive evidence, and the British appellation of Wine-tree for the vine is a strong argument. Doomsday exhibits to us a very particular proof of wine made in England during the period preceding the Conquest¹⁰. And the wines of Gloucestershire within a single century afterwards were little inferior to the French in sweetness¹¹. The beautiful region of Gaul, which had not a single vine in the days of Cæsar¹², was even famous for its vineyards in the reign of Vespasian¹³, and even exported its wines into Italy¹⁴. The whole province of Narbonne in the reign of Vespasian was planted with vineyards: and the wine-merchants of the country were remarkable for all the knavish dexterity of our modern brewers, tinging it with smoke, colouring it (as was suspected) with herbs and noxious dyes, and even adulterating the taste and appearance with aloes¹⁵. And as our first vines must undoubtedly have been transplanted from Gaul, so were they in all probability the vines of the Allobroges in the north of Dauphine. These were peculiarly fitted for cold countries. These ripened even in the frosts of the advancing winter. And these were certainly of the same colour and seem to have been actually of the same species as the black Muscadines of the present days¹⁶, which have lately been tried in the island and are found to be fittest for the climate. These were pretty certainly brought into Britain a little after the introduction of vines into all the regions of Gaul, and about the middle of the third century; when the numerous plantations of vines had gradually spread

spread over the face of the latter, and when they must have actually continued their progress into the former".

The Romans, even nearly to the days of Lucullus, were very seldom able to regale themselves with wine. Very little was then raised within the compass of Italy. And the foreign wines were so dear, that they were very seldom produced at an entertainment; and, when they were, each guest was indulged only with a single draught. But in the seventh century of Rome, as the extent of their conquests augmented the degree of their wealth and enlarged the sphere of their luxury, wines became the object of particular attention, many wine-vaults were constructed, and good stocks of liquor were repositied in them". This naturally gave encouragement to the wines of the country; and the Falernian rose immediately into great repute, and a variety of others, the still-celebrated wine of Florence among the rest, succeeded it about the close of the century. And the more westerly parts of the European continent were at once subjected to the Roman arms and enriched with the Roman vines".

But the scarcity of the native and the dearness of the foreign wines in Italy, several ages before the conquest of Lancashire, had called out the inventive faculties of the Roman mind, and occasioned the original discovery of facitious wines". These were still continued by the Romans and naturally taught to the Britons. These were made of almost all the products of the orchard and garden, the pear, the apple, the mulberry, the servis, and the rose". Two of them therefore were those agreeable liquors which we still extract from the apple and the pear and which we still denominate Cyder and Perry. The latter must have been called Pyrum by the Romans, and was therefore called Per-uis, Perry, or Pear-water by the Britons. The former actually received the appellation of Sicera among the Romans, the word being colloquially pronounced by them Sidera, as the same pronunciation of it among the present Italians satisfactorily evinces; and retained therefore the appellation of Cider among the Britons". And greatly as the British language, and through

it the original English, are enriched by the Roman, both have naturally received a much greater supply from the colloquial and the later Latinity than from the written and the classical; many truly Roman words particularly occurring in the British and English, which either do not appear at all or appear very different in the present remains of the Roman.

¹ F. 161 SaviHe.—² See Arpennis in Spelman's Glossary.—
³ Bede's Eccl. Hist. lib. i. c. 1. Smith.—⁴ Diodorus p. 350.—
⁵ Ibid.—⁶ Ossian vol. i. p. 116.—⁷ Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. 12.—
⁸ Vopiscus's life of Probus c. 18. Gallis omnibus et Hispanis ac
 Britannis—permisit ut vites haberent vinumque conficerent.—
⁹ Bede lib. i. c. 1.—¹⁰ Spelman in Arpennis and Camden p. 319.
¹¹ Malmesbury f. 161.—¹² Diodorus p. 350.—¹³ Pliny lib. xiv.
 c. 1.—¹⁴ Ibid. c. 3.—¹⁵ Pliny lib. xiv. c. 6.—¹⁶ Ibid. lib. xiv. c. 2.
¹⁷ Solinus c. 21.—¹⁸ Lib. xiv. c. 14.—¹⁹ C. 6, 14, and 3.—
²⁰ C. 16.—²¹ Pliny lib. xiv. c. 16. and Palladius (Geſner 1735)
 p. 993, 923, 924, and 901.—²² Sicera—quæ—conficitur—Po-
 morum Succo: Hieron. tom. iv. c. 264. Paris 1706.

V.

THE genuine breed of the British horses must have frequently run wild in the woods and mountains of the island, as thousands at the present period expatiate in a state of absolute freedom along the great base of the southern continent of America, and as numbers still range along the hills of Scotland and the forest of Hampshire. The genuine breed of the British horses was at once diminutive in its size and swift in its motions'. This breed still evidently subsists among us in the garrans of Scotland, in the ponies of Wales, and in the wild hobbies of some forests in England. And this appears to have been improved into the much larger race of our present horses by
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the introduction of a bigger breed from the Roman continent, and by the careful incorporation of the foreigners with the natives. The standard of the Roman horses was certainly larger than that of the British¹. The British are certainly improved in their size by the intermixture of a larger and a foreign breed with them. And we find a foreign breed of horses to have been actually introduced into the island, and some of them to have been actually carried into the most northerly regions of the Roman government, before the conclusion of the third century². These ponies the primitive Britons harnessed to their cars. These ponies the primitive Britons equipped with bridles and girths and mounted with riders³. The cavalry of the British armies consisted equally of horsemen and of charioteers⁴. But the Romans must have first taught our fathers to cover the naked backs of their horses with the furniture of saddles. The horses in the coins of the British sovereigns have not the least appearance of a saddle. And the British and the present appellation of that covering is purely and absolutely Roman, *Sedile*, *Sadhell*, or *Sadle*⁵. But the necks of the British garrans were frequently ornamented, with collars, and their manes were frequently decorated with strings, of the British pearls⁶. And the bits were composed of the bones in the large marine animals that frequented their shores, were polished carefully by the tool, and were brightened into an emulation with ivory⁷.

But if the horse was originally an inhabitant of Britain, the ass was originally a foreigner. The Romans and the Spaniards trafficked much in this useful animal; and it bore a very considerable price among them⁸. And though the milk of this animal among the Romans was not applied to the purposes of medicine, it was early applied to the uses of vanity. In the earlier period of the empire it was supposed by the Roman ladies to contribute much as a wash towards the whitening of the skin: and the consort of Nero kept a train of five hundred milch-asses in constant attendance upon her, and had her bath constantly replenished with their milk⁹. And the ass must have been brought into Britain with the Romans, as the only British

appellations of it, the Afyn of the Welch, the Azen of the Armoricans, and the Afal of the Irish, demonstratively prove. But by the intermixture of them and the horses another sort of animal was formed in the island, sharing usefully the nature of both, and denominated by the Roman name of Myl, Mul, or Mule. These the Britons as well as the Gauls must have yoked to their chariots, and have taught them all the various paces and all the ready obedience of their managed horses.

The breed of our British dogs must once have been as frequently wild as our horses, and has as great a propensity to become wild at present. In the desert plains of Patagonia, where the European horses have lapsed into absolute barbarism, the European dogs have equally lapsed with them; and are found equally savage in the beautiful but uncultivated island of Juan Fernandes. The wild dogs of Britain must have been early reclaimed by the British hunters, and their principles of courage and their powers of sagacity have been early converted against their unreclaimed brethren of the forests. And both such as had always remained tame and such as had once been wild particularly attracted the admiration of the naturalists, and greatly engaged the regard of the sportsman, among the Romans before and after their conquests in the island. But the principal sorts which seem to be genuine natives of the soil are these five, the great household-dog, the greyhound, the bulldog, the terrier, and the large flow hound.

The first is blest with no powers of sagacity at all, but is animated with an uncommon degree of courage. And it is peculiarly distinguished from others by a surly dignity of aspect, by a genuine good-naturedness of temper, and by an honest fidelity of heart. We have a breed of these at Manchester that is enormously tall and large. And just such an one is represented upon a coin of Cunobeline, and a person appears mounted sideways upon it, the worthy animal waving its tail and turning up its face with a sensible satisfaction in its rider.

The bull-dog enjoys equally a sagacity of nose and a bravery of spirit. The latter indeed is so peculiarly eminent, that this dog,

dog has perhaps a larger share of true genuine courage than any other animal in the world. The boldness of its spirit is remarkably enterprising, and the resolution of its temper is astonishingly determinate. And the native gallantry of the breed has gained them the credit of a frequent mention and the honour of an high commendation in the records of antiquity. The Gauls even purchased them early for the uses of war, and embattled them with their native dogs for the fight ". In the same manner the Colophonii of Ionia and the Castabalenses of Cilicia formed the front-line of their armies with dogs; and, after Marius's defeat of the Cimbri in battle, the dogs fiercely defended the baggage against the victorious Romans ". And when

. . . ———Até, hot from hell,

Cried Havock, and let loose the dogs of war
no longer in Gaul, the Romans exported them for the uses of hunting ". Strabo expressly commends them in general as incomparable dogs on the field ". And Gratius, who wrote in the days of Augustus, presents us with a clear account of their value and their use:

Quid freta si Morintum, dubio resluentia ponto,
Veneris, atque ipsos libeat penetrare Britannos ?
O quanta est merces, & quantum impendia supra,
Si non ad speciem mentiturosque decores
Protinus ! Hæc una est catulis jactura Britannis.
Ad magnum cum venit opus, promendaque virtus,
Et vocat extremo præceps discrimine Mavors,
Non tunc egregios tantum admirere Molossos ".
.

But can you waft across the British tide, .
And land undangered on the farther side, . .
O' what great gains will certainly redound
From a free traffick in the British hound !
Mind not the badness of their forms or face:
That the sole blemish of the generous race.
When the bold game turns back upon the spear,
And all the Furies wait upon the war,
.

First in the fight the whelps of Britain shine,

And snatch, Epirus, all the palm from thine.

Claudian particularly celebrates their activity and courage in the attack of the bull :

Magnaue taurorum fracturæ colla Britannæ,

—The British hound,

That wrings the bull's big forehead to the ground ".

And Symmachus the cotemporary of Claudian mentions seven Irish bull-dogs, *Septem Scotici canes*, as then first produced in the Circus at Rome to the great admiration of the people, who were so struck with their ferocity and boldness that they universally imagined them to have been brought over in cages of iron ".

The greyhound was originally denominated by the Britons either simply and most commonly the Grech, Greg, or Dog, which the mode of liquifying the *g* into *y* among the Britons and Saxons has now softened into Grey, or less frequently but more particularly the Vertrag, Ver Trache, the eager or swift dog ". This lightly limbed and elegantly molded species of our hounds was as much esteemed by the Romans for its fleetness as the former was admired for its bravery, but was not, like the former, peculiar to Britain. It was a native equally of Britain and of Gaul, and was therefore sometimes denominated by the Romans the Gallic Dog and sometimes ranked by them among the hounds of the Britons ". Martial extols the honest disinterestedness of the dog in the following couplet :

Non sibi, sed domino, venatur Vertagus acer,

Illæsum leporem qui tibi dente feret ".

For thee alone thy greyhound hunts the prey,

And brings to thee th' untasted hare away.

Nemesianus, who wrote near the close of the third century, mentions them by a Roman appellation exactly equivalent to the Ver Trache of the Britons, and shews the fondness of the Romans for them :

—*Catulos divisa Britannia mittit*

Veloces, nostrique orbis venatibus aptos ";

Be thine the greyhounds of the British race,
And taste improved the pleasures of the chace.
And Grattus has given us a strong commendation of their swiftness and a good general description of their nature:

—Si—juvat compellere Dorcas,
Aut versuta sequi leporis vestigia parvi,

—Pictam maculâ Vertraham dilige falsâ.
Ocyor affectu mentis pennâque cucurrit ;
Sed premit inventas, non inventura latecites
Illa ferâs —.

—Would you chace the deer,
Or urge the motions of the smaller hare,
Let the brisk greyhound of the Celtic name
Bound o'er the glebe and shew his painted frame.
Swift as the wing that sails adown the wind,
Swift as the wish that darts along the mind,
The Celtic greyhound sweeps the level lea,
Eyes as he strains, and stops the flying prey.
But should the game elude his watchful eyes,
No nose sagacious tells him where it lies.

There is a fourth breed of our dogs which equally appears to be the genuine production of the island. That is the race of our little terriers, so useful as it now is, so necessary as it must once have been, in the destruction of the weezle the foulmart and the polecat of our woods. These and the kindred classes of our woodland vermin must without them have multiplied to an infinite degree in the island, and have proved an infinite annoyance to the poultry-yards and the hare-parks of the British chieftains. The terrier therefore must have been absolutely necessary among us in the period of the primæval Britons. And the terrier appears to be actually a native of the island. It is very evidently described in the Poems of Oppian, who lived in the days of Severus, and who presents us with this circumstantial account of it :

Ἐς δὲ τι σκυλακίων γένος ὀλκίμων ἰχθυήρων,
 Βαίον, αἷαρ μεγάλης ἀνταξίον ἡμῶν ποιδῆς.
 Τῆς τραφεῖς αἰγρία φυλαὴ Βρεΐτανων ἀπολαύων
 Αἰῶρα ἐπικληθῆν σφας Ἀγασσάων²¹ ὀνομήσαν.
 Τῶν ἦτοι μέγας μὲν οἰκίον ἔβιδαναισι,
 Λιχνοῖς, οἰκιδίοις, τραπέζῃσιν κυνέσσι,
 Γυρον, αἰσαρκόων, λασιόριχον, ἡμασι νῶδες,
 Ἀλλ' οὐχάσσι παδάς κυκορῦμενον ἀργαλοῖσι,
 Καὶ θάμιναις κυνοδῶσιν ἀπαρχμῶν ἰοφοροῖσι.
 Ρίνεσι δ' αὖτε μάλιστ' ἀνεξόχος ἐστὶν Ἀγασσάων,
 Καὶ εἰδὴ παναρισός· ὥπει καὶ γαίαν ἰσίων
 Ἰχθύν εὐρεμέναι μέγα δὴ σοφός, ἀλλὰ καὶ αὐτὴν
 Ἰδμὼν ἡρίην μάλα σημασθῆναι αὐδμῶν²².

A small bold breed and steady to the game
 Next claims the tribute of peculiar fame!
 Train'd by the tribes on Britain's wildest shore,
 Thence they their title of Agassies bore.
 Small as the race that useless to their lord
 Bask on the hearth and beg about the board,
 Crook-limbed and black-eyed, all their frame appears
 Flanked with no flesh and bristled rough with hairs;
 But shod each foot with hardest claws is seen,
 The sole's kind armour on the beaten green;
 But fenced each jaw with closest teeth is found,
 And death sits instant on th' inflicted wound.
 Far o'er the rest he quests the secret prey,
 And sees each track wind opening to his ray:
 Far o'er the rest he feels each scent that blows
 Court the live nerve and thrill along the nose.

This is a very minute description of a British dog. And those two particular strokes in the description, the crookedness of its limbs and the leanness of its body, clearly appropriate the account to our present terrier²³.

To these we may subjoin another breed of our dogs, which seems to have been equally an original inhabitant of the island,

²¹ A Gaf or A Gaf (as Kist, the same word, is also Kis) signifies merely The Dog.

which is now almost peculiar to the parish of Manchester. This is the good old hound of our Mancunian fathers, which is so remarkably distinguished over all the rest of the kingdom by the peculiarity of its aspect and the particularities of its frame. And this must certainly have been the fine original from which the many striking and picturesque touches in these well-known lines of Shakespear were immediately transcribed.

HIPPOLITA.

I was with Hercules and Cadmus once,
When in a wood of Crete they bayed the boar
With hounds of Sparta; never did I hear
Such gallant chiding. For, besides the groves,
The skies, the fountains, ev'ry region near,
Seemed all one mutual cry, I never heard
So musical a discord, such sweet thunder.

THESEUS.

My hounds are bred out of the Spartan kind,
So flewed, so fanded; and their heads are hung
With ears that sweep away the morning dew;
Crook-kneed, and dew-laped, like Theſſalian bulls;
Slow in pursuit; but matched in mouth like bells,
Each under each. A cry more tuneable
Was never hollowed to nor cheered with horn
In Crete, in Sparta, nor in Theſſaly.

This delineation is evidently taken from the life. And the largeness of the chaps and the dapples of the body, the ample sweep of the slouching ears and the large exuberance of the bagging chest, the deforming crookedness of the knees, the sonorous depth of the note, and the heavy slowness of the motion, are all such clear and characteristic particulars as concur only in the Mancunian hound. This breed was in all probability once known in every part of the island. This breed was near the close of the last century confined to one or two counties in the south-western regions of the island and to Manchester and its vicinity in the north-western " . This breed is now utterly

extinct in the former and survives only in the latter. And the great size and the present fewness of this remarkable race pretty plainly proclaim them to be natives of the island, and to be the last perishing remains of a British breed within it. Once lost in the north, the dog was still continued in the south, and had there the honour to be delineated by the just bold pencil of a Shakespear. Once lost in the north, the dog was first introduced into it again from the south, and bears therefore at Manchester the expressive appellation of the Southern Hound. And being originally carried from Manchester into many of the neighbouring districts, and even into some of the southern counties, it there retains the note of its recenter descent in its newer appellation of the Manchester or the Lancashire Hound. But it has been long neglected by carelessness or by design. The characteristic bulk of the hound has been gradually diminishing for some time. And this old and venerable breed is gradually dwindling away into little more than a larger generation of common harriers.

These and our wolf-dogs were some of the original hounds of the island. And the Romans seem to have introduced into the one and to have added to the other the present breed of our common harehounds and the present race of our common spaniels. The former are pretty certainly foreigners, as their only game, the hare, could never have been hunted by the primæval Britons. And they are most probably Tuscans. Nemesianus has given us the following account of the Tuscan dog: and the description agrees exactly, I think, with the common harehound.

Quin & Tuscorum non est extrema voluptas
 Sæpe canum; sit forma illis licet obsita villo,
 Diffimilesque habeant catulis velocibus artus,
 Haud tamen injucunda dabunt tibi munera prædæ;
 Namque & odorato noscunt vestigia prato,
 Atque etiam leporum secreta cubilia monstrant:

Nor on the file of hunters last is found
 The merit, Tuscans, of your native hound;

• • What-

What though their form be shagged with roughening hairs,
 Nor one faint semblance of the greyhound wears,
 Still will the table thank their useful care,
 Served with the frequent banquet of the hare;
 They snuff her footsteps on the scented mead,
 They thread her mazes to her secret bed.

And the latter breed carries evidently the signification of its origin in the singularity of its name; the appellation of Spaniel or Spaniard being a sufficient indication of its native country, and the Roman termination of its name, Hispaniolus or Spaniol, being a sufficient declaration of its Roman introducer. And the same race of our dogs is pretty certainly meant by the same appellations in these lines of Nemesianus,

. Nec tibi Pannonicæ stirpis temnatur origo,
 Nec quorum proles de sanguine manat IBERO “,
 Praised are the fathers of Pannonia's blood,
 And praised the children of HISPANIA'S BLOOD;

And in these lines of Oppian,

Εξοχ' αριζηλοι, μαλα τ' αγρευηρσι μελονται,
 Παιονες, Αυσονιοι, Καρες, Θρηικες, ΙΒΗΡΕΣ “,

First on the field appear Aufonia's race,
 Thy dogs, O Caria, and thy hounds, O Thrace,
 First from the hunter claim the favourite's meed
 Pæonia's offspring and HISPANIA'S BREED.

“ Dio p. 1280.—“ Ibid.—“ Ofsian vol. I. p. 115, The Steeds of the Strangers.—“ Pegge's Coins C class 4, N° 2 and 3. class 5, and N° 2. class 6, and Camden's 2d table N° 9 and 32.—“ Cæsar p. 87, and Pomponius Mela lib. iii. c. 6.—“ See Ware's Antiq. (Harris 1764) p. 160.—“ Borlase's Coins N° 12, 19, 20, and 22, and Ofsian vol. I. p. 11.—“ Ofsian ibid., Strabo p. 307, and Solinus c. 22.—“ Pliny lib. viii. c. 43.—“ Ibid. lib. xi. c. 41.—“ Claudian p. 244 Elzevir.—“ Pegge's Coins class 4. N° 5.—

" Strabo p. 305.—" Pliny lib. viii. c. 40.—" Strabo p. 305.—
 " Ibid.—" Gratii Cynegeticon p. 26. London 1699.—" De
 Laud. Stil. lib. iii. and Symmachus lib. ii. Ep. 77.—" The same
 as Ger Brache. So Durobrivæ, Brig-e, and Duro-trig-es, one
 word varied into Briv, Brig, and Trig.—" Ovid's *Canis Gallicus*.
 in *Met.* lib. i. and Gratius's *Inconsulti Galli* in b. i. l. 194, both
 compared with Nemesianus.—" Lib. xiv. E. 200.—" Cyne-
 geticon p. 123. London 1699.—" Ibid. l. i.—" Ibid. Cam-
 den p. 190 has strangely applied this passage to our present
 gaze-hound. The mere reading of the words is sufficient to
 shew the falseness of the application.—" And the way of hunt-
 ing even the fox in the eighth century was only by un-earthing
 it. *Affuescant pueri* (says Alcuinus)—*non vulpium fodere ca-*
vernas, non leporum fugaces sequi curfus, Malmesbury f. 13.—
 " Aubrey's *MS. in the Museum Oxford.*—" P. 117.—" P. 123.
 —" B. i. l. 370.

C H A P. X.

I.

IN the whole circle of intellectual entertainments, few particulars carry so agreeable an appearance to the curious mind as the history of human manners. And that lower species of patriotism which shoots up instinctively in every breast makes it particularly pleasing to view our own national manners genuine as they rise in the pages of our national records, and to see faithfully represented in the mirror of history those accidental combinations of ideas or those rational modes of opinion which prevailed in the more distant ages of our fathers. Nor is this satisfaction confined merely to their sublimer exertions of the understanding, their theories of political science or their principles of literary taste. It is even better felt on the survey of their little fashions and fancies in the more characterizing scenes of lower life, in the faithful exhibition of their private manners, and in the authentic detail of their domestic œconomy.

The provision for the table among the primitive Britons was taken chiefly from their herds of kine, their flocks of sheep, their deer, and their hogs¹. Their droves of the last must have undoubtedly furnished them, as their brethren the Gauls and the Spaniards were actually furnished², with a great variety of dishes. The Gauls produced the largest and the best hog-meat that was brought into Italy³. And the northerly Gauls in particular supplied the whole compass of Rome and the greatest part of Italy in the days of Augustus with gammons, hogs-puddings, sausages, and hams⁴. And to these the Britons must have added some others of the island beasts and several of the island

island birds. The former shall be specified hereafter.' The latter must have been the duck, the teal, the widgeon, the wildgoose, and the swan; the woodcock, the quail, the heathcock or grouse, and the snipe; the lark, the quail or stock-dove, and others. These are all natives of the island, as either the appellations of them in the British language or the mention of them in the British poems of Ossian' evidently shew; and none of these appear to have been prohibited, as some certainly were, by accidental customs or religious obligations. And the British Cheneros or wildgoose was actually esteemed a great dainty in the reign of Vespasian, and was preferred by the Britons for the table to most of the other animals in the island'.

But this bill of the British fare was greatly enlarged by the Romans. The intimate connection of the British with the Roman residents, and their faithful imitation of the Roman manners, must have naturally dissolved the obligations which the mere influence of accidental opinions had prescribed to the British tables. The declension of the druidical religion, and the necessarily preceding relaxation of its practical rigours, must have naturally untwisted the bonds which the mere prejudices of national religion had imposed upon the British palates. Geese hares and poultry were no more prohibited to be eaten. The British hen now first began to be fattened, and the British cock now first began to be castrated. The practice of cramming the hen was originally tried at Delos, and was prohibited by a law at Rome a little before the third Punic war'. But to dam up the current of luxury in one channel frequently serves only to make it directly break out into another. Hens were crammed no longer: but both hens and cockrels were fattened, as they are still fattened amongst ourselves, with food steeped in milk, and were even rendered more agreeable to the palate than the former'. And the method of fattening the cock by the act of castration seems to have been entirely a Roman invention; and was certainly introduced into Britain by the Romans, the unhappy victim of barbarous luxury being still denominated among us by his Roman appellation of Capo or Capon'.

• • Nor

Nor were the prohibitions of the Britons confined entirely to hæres geese and poultry. They extended equally to all the finny tribes that inhabited their rivers and frequented their shores¹⁰. And these were now equally as the others laid open to the waste of hunger and the ravages of luxury. Beneath the shelter of this prohibition the fishes had hitherto continued for ages in peace, neglected and unknown, and had multiplied into infinite numbers¹¹. They were now first pursued into their watery element, and now first received their particular appellations. Hence the class of our fishes is so remarkably distinguished above the other ranks of our animals by the much greater frequency of Roman-British denominations among them. The *Minimus* or Minnow, the *Gobio* or Gudgeon, the *Trutta* or Trout, and the *Perca* or Pearch, the *Conger* or Conger, the *Barbus* or Barbel, the *Abramis* or Bream, the *Carpio* or Carp, the *Mullus* or Mullet, and the rest, were now dislodged from their antient seats in the rushy channels and the hollow banks of our rivers. The *Thynnus* or Tunny, the *Solea* or Sole, the *Salmo* or Salmon, and the *Raja* or Ray, the *Cochlea* or Cockle, the *Musculus* or Muscle, and the *Ostreum* or Oyster were now taken from their primæval haunts upon our beaches and our shoals. And both now made their appearance upon our tables. The British oyster was deservedly famous among the Romans, and was even as early as the reign of Vespasian thought worthy to be carried into Italy¹². The best were then gathered from the shore of Kent, were then denominated the Oysters of Rutupis, and were of the same species pretty certainly, and were probably collected from the same places as the present low-priced oysters of Milton and Faversham¹³. And the Romans first taught us the art of fattening our oysters in artificial beds and of feeding our fishes in artificial ponds; the feeding-pits of the former being first invented about ninety years before Christ and first constructed upon the shore of Baiæ, and large reservoirs being immediately made by others for the latter¹⁴.

But the Romans increased the variety of the British provisions, not only by the introduction of many prohibited animals to the
table,

table, but also by the importation of many foreign animals into the island. These were rabbits, pheasants, cuckows, and pigeons, partridges, plovers, turtles, and peacocks. The perdix, petris, paitrisg, or partridge, the pluvialis or plover, the turtur, tyrtyr, or turtle, and the pavo, peav, or pea, all sufficiently declare their origin in their names. The peacock was a dish of considerable repute among the Romans, but was first placed upon the table by Hortensius the Orator about seventy years before Christ and in a supper which he gave to the sacerdotal college¹. The rabbit was originally a native of Spain and its adjoining islands, and began to be brought into Italy in the days of Augustus². It was denominated Cuniculus from its burrow by the Romans in Spain, and received therefore the appellation of Kunigl and Conisl among the Bretoons, of Kuningen among the Welch, and of Kynin and Kuinin among the Irish³. The cuckow just fledged was reckoned by the Romans of the first century to excel every other species of birds in the fine taste of its flesh⁴. And its Roman name of Coccyx or Cuckow very evidently shews it to have been brought by the Romans into Britain. The domestic pigeon was once equally a stranger to Asia and to Britain⁵, and bespeaks sufficiently its introducers into the latter by the name of Klommen which it bears in the Welch, of Kylobman and Kolom in the Cornish, and of Kulmor Kolm in the Armoric and the Irish. And the Phasiana or pheasant was originally derived from the banks of the Phasis in Colchos, was carried over into Italy before Agricola's proconsulate in Britain⁶, and appears plainly from its present appellation to have been brought into Britain by the Romans.

¹ Cæsar p. 89.—² Varro de re Rustica lib. ii. c. 4. and Strabo p. 293.—³ Varro ibid.—⁴ Strabo ibid.—⁵ P. 58 and 145. vol. I. and p. 223 vol. II.—⁶ Pliny lib. x. c. 22.—⁷ Pliny lib. x. c. 50.—⁸ Ibid.—⁹ Martial lib. xiii. E. 63 and 64. and Columella p. 634. Gesner.—And the Romans had hen-coops. They were first invented in Italy, and were very common in the days of Agricola: Pliny

Pliny lib. x. c. 21. See two antient representations of a Roman hen-pen in Montfaucon's *Ant. Expl.* tom. ii. plates 63. N^o 3. and 64. N^o 1.—¹⁰ Dio p. 1280.—¹¹ Ibid.—¹² Pliny lib. ix. c. 54.—¹³ Juvenal's fourth Sat. and see Camden p. 236.—¹⁴ Pliny c. 54. lib. ix.—¹⁵ Pliny lib. x. c. 20.—¹⁶ Varro lib. iii. c. 12.—¹⁷ Pliny c. 55. lib. viii.—¹⁸ Pliny lib. x. c. 9.—¹⁹ C. 29. lib. x.—²⁰ Pliny lib. x. c. 48, and lib. xix. c. 4.

II.

AS the general face of the island was everywhere tufted with large woods at this period, so some particular districts were covered with immense forests. Three of these were distinguished over the rest by the wild extensiveness of their range. One of them was in Scotland, and lined all the hills in the central regions of the Highlands. Another was the great forest of the Coritani, which contained several towns and the seats of a whole nation within it, and which straggled over the five whole counties of Lincoln Nottingham Derby Leicester and Rutland, and even such parts of Northamptonshire as lie to the north of the Nen. But the third was still larger than either, and swept across the south of the island for an hundred and fifty miles together, ranging even from Kent into Somersetshire. These necessarily remained the secure harbours and the great nurseries of the many wild beasts which were then produced in the country. And from these the lesser woods and the more diminutive forests of the kingdom must have been perpetually replenished with a new recruit of beasts. In this appearance of Britain, the spirit of hunting which actuated the primæval Britons would undoubtedly be kept alive in the Roman by the nearly equal frequency of the game in the woods, and by the nearly equal necessity of preventing its increase upon them. And the beasts which roamed in the British woods and were chased by the British hunters were these.

Branching horns of a most extraordinary size have been discovered frequently in several parts of England and Ireland; and some of them were still fastened to the heads of their owners*. The discovery of them equally in Ireland and in England, and the great frequency of the discovery in both, shew the original proprietors to have been certainly natives of Britain. The horns have been supposed by some, and they are asserted by the tradition of Ireland, to be actually the horns of an elk. But as that animal appears plainly from its Latin appellation of *Alce* or *Elk* among us to have never been a native of Britain, so are its horns at once very different in figure and much inferior in size to these. The horns appear plainly to be the relics of deer, and are undoubtedly therefore the antlers of a large stout breed of our British deer. The breed must have been uncommonly large. Several of the horns were so enormously tall, that the fairest antlers of our present deer would appear as insignificant in the comparison with them as the young shoots of a fawn compared with the beams of a buck. Some of the horns branched out to so enormous a width, that the tip of the one was nearly eleven feet distant from the tip of the other*. The breed is now lost in Britain and in Europe. But as it still seems to subsist in the Moose of America, so it seems to have been originally frequent in the north of Germany; the horns of the moose and the antlers discovered in the British isles being nearly of the same standard*, and the American Moose and the Scythian *Tarandus* being described by the naturalists exactly in the same manner. The body of the former is said by the most circumstantial describers of the Moose to be about the size of a bull, and the body of the latter is declared by the one only describer of the *Tarandus* to be about the bigness of an ox. The former is asserted to have a neck resembling a stag's, and the latter a head greater than a stag's and not unlike it. And both are mentioned to have large branching horns, cloven hoofs, and shaggy hides*. These must have been denominated by the Britons Seghs, Oxen, or Savage Deer, as Segh actually signifies an ox at present, and as in an old Irish glossary it is interpreted a Savage Deer.

Deer⁶. 'And these actually continued in Ireland to the twelfth century, being evidently described by an author the cotemporary of Henry the Second among the wild beasts of the island, as stags little calculated for flight because of their extreme bulkiness, rather low in stature, but greatly superior to all others, in the largeness of their heads and the dignity of their antlers'. These however must have been only a peculiar species of our island deer. The common race must have been the large red deer, which have horns much greater than our present bucks, are still found wild in our own forest of Bowland and in several other parts of Britain, and formerly abounded in all our woods. And the latter was hunted by the Britons in all probability with that big bold dog which exists only in Ireland at present, and which is popularly denominated the Irish wolf-dog. The buck-hound of the Britons, like the dog of Ireland, was grey-coloured, long-bodied, and well-scented, active enough to run down and strong enough to master a British stag'. But very different must have been the original game of the Manchester hound. The uncommon length of its body and the considerable strength of its jaws are both evidently useless in its present courses after the hare. And the heavy bulkiness of its frame, and the consequent slowness of its motions must have equally disqualified it for the chase of the stag. And as the race has been long dwindling at Manchester, so from the great neglect and the gradual extinction of it in the south it appears to have been there equally dwindling for ages, and in all probability before the strain was introduced into Manchester. Large therefore and slow as the dog is at present, it must have been once considerably larger and proportionably slower. The size of the dog has been studiously diminished at Manchester in order to increase its speed. And in this view of the hound, enormously tall and long, and uncommonly heavy and slow, we can find only one species of game that is properly adapted to it. The boar the wolf and the stag are all evidently too fleet for its motions. Its genuine object must have been some animal that was at least as heavy as

itself and at least as slow. And that could have been only the British Segh or Moose. In this and only in this designation of the dog, all his remarkable qualities are properly combined together, and have all of them their proper object. The great bulk of the game required a proportionate size in the hunter, as the strength of the one must have been in some measure correspondent to the strength of the other. The formidable armoury which the seggh carried about him in the spreading branches of his pointed antlers required the seggh-dog at once to be animated with a very considerable degree of resolution for the attack, and to be furnished with sharp strong fangs for the hold. And as the slowness of pace in the latter resulted from the same cause with and was therefore justly adapted to the slowness of pace in the former, so was it sufficiently compensated to the latter by the exhilarating thunder of its mouth and the sure sensibility of its nose.

The wolf, which is nothing more perhaps than a wilder species of dogs and is therefore denominated Madre Allaidh or the wild dog by the Irish to the present day, is well known to have been harboured in England for ages after this period, actually continued in Scotland to the commencement of the last century, and absolutely remained in Ireland to the present". The boar is equally known to have been an inhabitant of our woods, is represented on a coin of Cunobeline beneath the shade of a tree, is particularly celebrated in a Roman-British inscription, and remained with us several centuries after the wolf". But our woods also bred a number of wild bulls at this period. The common cattle of the island must have frequently run wild along our heaths and forests, and have naturally a tendency to a life of savage liberty at present. The domestic cattle of Europe now range wildly in herds along the grassy levels of Patagonia. And the wild cows and wild bulls of the island continued very frequent among us in the fourth century, and remained even nine or ten centuries afterward". These were enormously large and bulky, all milk-white in their appearance, all bristled with thick manes

manes like lions, and almost as fierce and as savage as they". Nor were these the only inhabitants of our woods. We had also a numerous breed of bears in the island. The hills of Portugal, the mountains of Spain, and the forests of Britain, all equally produced a variety of bears at this period". These continued in the north of England as late as the eighth century. These continued in the south of England as late as the Conquest. When any one, says the Penitential of archbishop Egbert, strikes a wild beast with an arrow and it escapes and is found dead three days afterwards, if an hound a wolf a fox or a bear or any other wild beast hath begun to feed upon it, let no Christian touch it. The town of Norwich, says Doomsday, in the time of the Confessor furnished annually one bear to the king and six dogs for the baiting of it". And all these inhabitants of our extensive woodlands must have been chased by the dogs which still continue remarkable among us, and which still point out the original nature of their game in their present appellations of Bear-dogs Bull-dogs and Wolf-dogs.

All animals were in a great degree probably civilized at the æra of their release from the ark, and some of them were carried equally tame by the first colonies of the Noachidæ into the west, and were wafted in the same vessels with their masters into the islands of Britain. There multiplying in considerable numbers and roving into the woods for food, they were no longer daily conversant with man or subject to the uniform restraints of authority, and in the course of two or three generations sunk absolutely into the nature of savages. Such was probably the case, as the confinement in the ark for more than a year must necessarily have tamed in some degree the wilder beasts and must have civilized in a great degree the gentler. Such was more probably the case, as this explains that great difficulty in natural history which is explainable upon no other principle, the transportation of savage animals from the continent into distant islands. And such was pretty certainly the case, as we know even the most civilized of all our domestic animals, our horses, our dogs, and our kine, to have been trans-
ported.

ported into America, and there in this manner and in a short period to have gradually fallen away from their former dispositions, and to have become as wild and as savage as most of those which are peculiarly denominated wild beasts.

These beasts must have been now caught for food and baited for diversion by the Roman Britons. The bear was even transported into Italy, was hunted publicly in the Roman shews, and furnished great diversion to the Roman people¹¹. And the bull the bear the boar and the wolf must have been all equally baited by the Romans in Britain and by their imitators the Roman Britons. The baitings of wild animals were the favourite spectacles among the Romans, and the baitings of the bull and the bear are still the favourite diversions of our dogs and our populace. And as amphitheaters were constructed of squared stone and in a magnificent style for these exhibitions at Rome, so were others erected within the island in an humbler stile of architecture and of the humbler materials of clay, chalk, gravel, and turf. Such are the great amphitheaters at Silchester in Hampshire and Dorchester in Dorsetshire, once ascending in several rows of seats, and still extending an arena of nearly two hundred yards in circumference¹².

But the pleasures of the chase were not the only recreations of the primæval Britons in the field. With a fondness for the exercise of hunting they had a taste for the kindred diversion of hawking. And every chieftain among them maintained a considerable number of heavogs, heauogs, or hawks for the sport. This appears decisively from a curious passage in the poems of Ossian, in which a peace is endeavoured to be gained by the proffer of an hundred managed steeds, an hundred foreign captives, and "an hundred hawks with fluttering wing that fly across the sky". The diversion of hawking was scarcely known even by relation to the Romans of Vespasian's days. In *Thraciæ parte super Amphipolim*, says Pliny, *homines atque accipitres societate quâdam aucupantur: hi ex sylvis et harundinetis excitant aves, illi super-volantes deprimunt; rursus captas aucupes dividunt cum iis. . Traditum est, missas in sublime sibi excipere eos;*

et cùm tempus sit capturæ clangore ac volatûs genere invitare ad occasionem ¹⁸. But the diversion appears to have been introduced among them immediately afterwards ¹⁹. The Thracians and the Britons were once the only followers of the sport ²⁰. Among the former the recreation was pursued only by a particular district of the country ²¹. Among the latter it seems to have been universally prosecuted by the chiefs, and appears to have been followed with spirit; as we find one of the most northerly chiefs, the private head of a family, and an inhabitant of a country ill adapted for the exercise because of its numerous hills, offering no less than one hundred hawks to the enemy. And as the Romans adopted probably from the Britons their own use of the hawk, so they must have greatly improved the diversion of the Britons by the introduction of spaniels into the island. So improved it appears among the Roman-Britons of the sixth century. Gildas in a very curious passage of his Epistle speaks of Maglocunus on his relinquishing the sphere of ambition and taking refuge in a monastery, and poetically compares him to a dove that swiftly cleaves the air at the noisy approach of the dogs, and with various turns and windings hastily takes her flight from the destructive talons of the hawk ²². And so improved it remained the favourite recreation of our British gentlemen beyond the middle of the last century, even till the predominant spirit of inclosure and the fabrication of light fowling-pieces banished it very recently from the kingdom ²³.

Such were the manly military recreations of our British ancestors. Such the Romans found among them, and added three others to them.

The hare must have been never hunted in Britain before the conquests of the Romans. Previously to those conquests, and for some time assuredly after them, the hare was a beast of augury among the Britons ²⁴. But as the British peculiarities of opinion were worn away by their commerce with the Romans, it lost its importance in the science of augury, and became as much exposed to danger in Britain as its brethren were on the continent. This must necessarily have been the case with the hare.

hare. This appears to have been actually the case from the representations of hare-hunting which are made on several of the Roman-British remains among us".

When the Romans introduced the rabbit into Italy, they introduced the custom of hunting it with ferrets". When the Romans imported the same animal into Britain, they imported the same custom with it. The great reason for the Roman introduction of the former animal into both was the great pleasure which they took in hunting it with the latter". And the Britons adopted what the Romans practised; and have transmitted to us, their successors of the present days, the Roman-Spanish hunt and the Roman-Spanish name of the animal employed in it; denominating the Viverra in the Welch dialect Guivær and in the Irish Fircad or Ferret.

And with both these the Romans must have brought in the equally remaining diversion of cock-fighting. This is a recreation which has been wildly supposed to be the native production of the British genius. This is a recreation which was known to many of the antients and was introduced by the Romans. In the first century a grand cocking was held every year in the city of Pergamus, cocks (according to the historian's expression) being there matched as gladiators and exhibited as a spectacle". And cock-matches were very common with the Greeks and not uncommon with the Romans in the third". They even laid considerable wagers on the issue of their battles". In both centuries the breeds of cocks that were produced in the island of Rhodes, about Tanagra in Bœotia, at Chalcis in Eubœa, and in the kingdom of Media, were superior in reputation to all others for their spirit and resolution in the fight". And the uncommon bravery which has always distinguished the breed of our British cocks would soon induce the Romans, ever fond as they were of barbarous diversions, to train them up for the pit, to direct their blindly flaming courage against their brethren, and to arm them with guaius, gaffs, gaffies, or lances. These sorts of exhibitions were less barbarous in their nature than their execrable shews of gladiators, and were nearly the same in the scale of

humanity as their baitings of the wolf the bull the bear and the boar. And as some of the cities in Britain constructed large amphitheaters for the latter, so others of them would naturally erect lesser amphitheaters for the former. One at least appears to have been actually erected, and many more were assuredly constructed in various parts of the kingdom. Such was plainly the little circle of gravel and sand, the carcase of a castrenseian amphitheater, as Dr. Stukeley calls it, which tradition points out as something remarkable, and which lies remarkably placed upon a rounded eminence, directly fronting the eye as we go from Sandwich to Richborough Castle, and looking down upon the large original harbour of the Roman navy, the flat marshy level of Sandwich at present. Evidently too small to have been constructed for the greater exhibitions, it must as evidently have been constructed for the lesser. Considered solely by itself, considered comparatively with the similar constructions, it can have been only a Roman cockpit. It is not half so large as the amphitheaters of Silchester and Dorchester, though these towns were merely the capitals of single tribes and stipendiary, and Rutupæ was actually the metropolis of Britannia Prima and a colony. The arena at Dorchester and at Silchester, as I have remarked before, is almost two hundred yards in circumference. And the arena at Richborough appears to the eye to be only about sixty or seventy in the sweep¹⁰.

¹ Strabo p. 305.—Richard p. 32, and Ptolemy, and b. f. ch. xii. f. 2.—² Richard p. 26.—³ Richard p. 18. This wood, denominated Andred, was many ages afterwards an hundred and twenty miles in length and thirty miles in breadth, commencing from the western boundary of Kent and running directly east. See Saxon Chronicle A. D. 893. and Richard p. 18. Anterida.—⁴ Phil. Transf. N° 227 (2), and Leigh's Lancashire b. I. p. 62, and Warc's Antiquities Harris's edit. p. 168.—⁵ Pliny lib. viii. c. 34, Phil. Transf. N° 368 (1), and Smith's Cork vol. I. p. 139.—⁶ Lhwyd under the word. And the horn of a rein deer, said

by Leigh in Nat. Hist. p. 84. b.iii. to be found under a Roman altar at Cheshler, was most probably the horn of a moose.—
 ' The passage has been astonishingly overlooked by all our writers. It is very curious and runs thus, *Cervos præ nimia pinguedine minùs fugere prævalentes, quantoque minores sunt corporis quantitate, tanto præcellentiùs efficiuntur capitis & cornuum dignitate* (Topographia Hiberniæ per Giraldum p. 709 Camden).—
 * Offian p. 4, 81, vol. I, and p. 110 vol. II.—⁹ Camden c. 1279 and 1312 wolves are said to remain in Iceland at present. But it is a mistake: see Ware's Antiq. Harris p. 165. and Smith's Kerry p. 173 —¹⁰ Pegge's Coins N° 1. class 2. And on a Roman altar discovered near Stanhope in the bishoprick of Durham about 1749 was this signal inscription, *Silvano invicto sacrum ob Aprum exiniæ formæ captum quem multi antecessores ejus prædari non potuerunt.*—¹¹ Claudian de Laud. Stil. lib. v. &c. —¹² Camden p. 702 and 708, speaking from some antient accounts which I have not seen. —¹³ Claudian de Laud. Stil. lib. v. and Martial de Spect. E. 7. —¹⁴ Egbricht's Penitential drawn up about 750, p. 138. vol. I. Concilia Mag. Brit. &c. Wilkins, and p. 777. Gale vol. I. from Doomsday.— And bears appear in Normandy nearly to the conquest of England: see Gemeticensis p. 667. Camden.—¹⁵ Pliny lib. viii. c. 36, and Camden p. 701.—¹⁶ Itin. Cur. p. 155 and 170, and Phil. Trans. 1748 p. 603.—¹⁷ Offian vol. I. p. 115.—¹⁸ Lib. x. c. 8 —¹⁹ Martial lib. xiv. E. 216. See also Oppian's Cynegeticks lib. i.—
²⁰ Pliny lib. x. c. 8. —²¹ Tete, ac si, *stidulo canum lapsu* aerem validè secantem, sævosque rapidi harpagones *accipitris* sinuosis flexibus vitantem,—rapuisti—*columbam* (p. 20. Gale).—²² In maximâ Bibliothecâ patrum tom. xiii. p. 85. Ep. 40. of Boniface, Ethelbert, king of Kent in the days of Ethelbald his brother king of England, desires Boniface archbishop of Mentz to send him a brace of falcons that were bold and taught enough to fly at cranes and bring them to the ground, as there were very few such in Kent. And in Malmesbury f. 27 we see Athelstan requiring of the Welch Volucres quæ aliarum avium prædâ per inane venari noscunt.—See a further account of hawking in Spelman's

man's Glossary (Acceptor), who was ignorant of the true original of the diversion. And see Howel Dha's Laws lib. i. c. 15. &c., where hawking appears to have been a favourite amusement among the Britons of Wales in the tenth century.—" Dio p. 1006.—" Battelcy's Antiq. Rutup. p. 84. See also Dio p. 1010.—" Pliny lib. viii. c. 55.—" Pliny lib. x. c. 21.—" Columella (Gciner) p. 634 and 635.—" Rixofarum avium lanistæ, cujus plerumque totum patrimonium, pignus aleæ, victor Gallinaceus puctes abstulit (Columella p. 635.)—" Pliny lib. x. c. 21. and Columella p. 634 and 635.—" See Itin. Cur. p. 119 and 156.

III.

The face of the Siftuntian empire must have exhibited nearly the same sylvan appearance as the general face of the island. It was in most places tufted with woods, and it was in many overspread with forests. The six woods which originally encircled the six fortresses of the primæval Britons now spread at a greater distance about the regular towns which had been constructed near them. And the southern division of the county contained no less than five or six very considerable forests within it. The forests of Pendle Rossendale and Blackburne filled up nearly the whole circuit of Blackburne hundred, spread over the now ragged sides of those extended moors, capped the now naked crests of those numerous hills, and softened the wildly dreary aspect of both '. The forest of Horwich possessed all the north-westerly region of Salford hundred, crossed a part of Derby, and extended into the limits of Layland, and was as late as the fourteenth century no less than sixteen miles in circumference '. And the forest of Derbyshire was so denominated because it ranged over a very considerable portion of Derby hundred, shooting out, even in the middle of the thirteenth century, from Sankey-water on the east to Bickerstaff and Aughton on the north, the river Alt on the west, and the broad current of the Mersey on the south'.

The less extended forest in the bosom of which the British Mancunium was originally laid out, and the Roman-British Mancunium was originally erected, was still distinguished by its primitive appellation of Ardven Arden or the Great Wood. This appellation was naturally given it by the first settlers in the vicinity of the parish: And this appellation was as naturally retained for it by the succeeding generations of their descendants. The name, like many of the same nature in the kingdom, and like the appellations of most of the more remarkable objects within it, the rivers, the forests, and the towns, continued equally the same through the revolutions of the Saxon the Danish and the Norman settlements among us. And the name of Arden appears therefore upon the face of our records, even in the reign of Edward the first, as the name of a considerable district in the parish; the boundaries of the present Clayton being described in our records as beginning from Hardene, passing along the margin of Droylsden, edging closely to the ground of Sinderland, and terminating at the demesne-lands of Hardene again.

This Arden had now gradually receded on every side of Mancunium, and had given up its more contiguous regions to the dominion of the spade and the plough. But it must still have curved about the town in a large amphitheater of woods, and must still have maintained its hereditary possessions over the greatest part of the parish. It must still have covered all the northern parts of the parish, the gentle knolls of Chetwood and the little hills of Blakeley. The name of Blakeley is derived from the great woods which, at the period of the Saxon establishment among us, lined the sloping sides of the hills and ranged along the narrow levels of the vallies through the whole compass of the township. The Saxon Bleac Black or Blake imports the deep gloom of a considerable wood. Hence we have so many places distinguished by this epithet in England, where no circumstances of soil and no peculiarities of water gave occasion to it. Hence we have the villages of Blackburne and Blackrode in our county; Blakeley-Hurst near Wigan, and our own Blake-

ley near Manchester '. And the woods of this Blakeley were even seven miles in circuit as late as the fourteenth century *. On the eastern side of the parish, the same Arden remained many centuries afterward in the woods of Collyhurst and Nuthurst and in the thicket of Bradford, the last being even in the reign of Edward the second no less than a mile in circumference ?. In the southerly regions of the parish it peculiarly retained the name of Arden for ages, as I have previously shewn, and was latterly broken into the woods that gave denomination to Openshaw to Blackbrook and to Blackstakes, into Ashton Hurst and Heaton Wood, and into the large thicket that winded along the bank of the Mersey, gave the denomination of Hard-ey or Hardy to a range of meadows upon it, and (as I shall soon shew) afforded a particular shelter for the wild beasts in the adjoining district of Barlow *.

Thus was the parish of Manchester overspread at this period with woods, and was at the same time skirted with other woods upon every side, having the forest of Werneth on the acclivity of Hollinwood and on the hills of Oldham to the east, Drywood and Westwood on the west, and the Cheshire Arden on the south. Within the parish, no parts seem to have been free from the native oaks but the uncultivated area and the extended mosses. The latter were certainly the moss of Failsworth and assuredly others. The moss of Failsworth undoubtedly existed in the earliest period of the Roman residence among us, as the road to Cambodunum pushes boldly across the breadth of it. And others must have equally existed with it. The same physical principles that generated the moss of Failsworth must have equally generated others in the parish. And all our mosses, in the just estimate of reason, must be presumed to have been equally prior with the moss of Failsworth to the settlement of the Romans at Manchester, except any of them can adduce a convincing proof to the contrary. But only one of them can. No traces of the plow, the ridge and the furrow, have been discovered in any of them, as have plainly been found in one of the Yorkshire and many of the Irish mosses *. In some of the latter

latter have been discovered even the burnt stump of a large tree and the remains of a wattled hedge, the hedge still standing upon the ground under a depth of five or six feet, and the cinders and ashes still lying upon the stump at the depth of ten ^{or}. Nothing has been discovered in any but one of our Mancunian mosses that even distantly bespoke the previous residence of the Romans among us. And the watery waste of Trafford moss has been lately channelled from end to end by the Bridgwater canal, all our mosses are continually cut into for their turf, all of them have been for ages encroached upon by the plough, and nearly the whole circuit of Houghs and absolutely the whole of Failsworth mosses have been recently converted into cultivated lands.

Sometimes the light grey sand and the strong tenacious loam of a wooded dingle, or of some wooded hollow upon the side of an hill, accidentally received the waters of an obstructed brook, or regularly drank in the falling showers of the winter, till the trees were unable to support themselves upon the spongy soil. Sometimes the trees were originally thrown or cut down, as many of the trees in our Manchester mosses appear to have been actually cut down, and originally obstructed the passage of the waters. Thus that particular region of Failsworth moss which was traversed by the Roman road, and which was evidently the boggiest district of it, being now reduced nearer to the original level of the ground, has a considerable descent to it upon either side; and the highest region of Chatmoss about two centuries ago, upon an extraordinary discharge of the swelling waters, appeared to be a fair valley and to be watered with a little brook ^{or}. And many mosses are found upon rising grounds and upon the declining side of an hill. Every drain for the moisture being thus gradually choaked up, and the ground being constantly supplied with a recruit of stagnated water, the principles of putrid vegetation would begin to act with vigour, and a rank harvest would overspread the face of the ground. This dying every year and being every year succeeded with a fresh crop, a coat would gradually rise upon the surface, and the matted mass would

would in a century form a considerable crust. This is found upon our mosses two or three or four yards in thickness. And as the great body of stagnated water was fed with regular supplies from the original current additional influxes or both, the mossy tract would gradually extend itself, desert the natural or artificial hollow in which it was originally formed, and spread over the neighbouring grounds. Thus the broad embrowned waste of Chatmoſs must have begun at first in the hollow of a little valley, and must have afterwards usurped upon all the loftier grounds around it; a considerable region of it now lying higher than many parts of the contiguous country, and the center being still higher than the rest. In these efforts the imprisoned waters have sometimes so violently distended the coat, that the texture of it has been broken, the country has been deluged with an inky torrent, and the cultivated fields have been overspread with a destructive slime. Thus our own Hough's moss, or as in peculiar eminence it was denominated among us The Moss, burst on New-year's-day in 1633, spread a deep bed of filth over the neighbouring lands, and poisoned all the fish in the neighbouring rivulets¹². And, upon any long continuance of rain at present, the crust of Chatmoſs is visibly lifted up by the heaving waters below, and even rises so considerably as entirely to intercept some extended prospects across it. Nor is the firmer ground of our sable moors any thing else in reality than such an extent of mossy soil discharged of its stagnant waters, dried either by the accidental diversion of the feeding rill, by the accidental or regular emission of its current, or by both, or having all its waters exhausted and exhaled by the demands of the luxuriant harvest above. Thus upon the firm levels of Walkden and Kearsley moors have been found innumerable trees, firs, birches, quickens, and oaks, buried within the black soil; and, even four yards below the surface and directly under the soil, a long rank grass has been discovered in plenty lying upon the natural mold.

These active principles must necessarily have operated with more or less vigour from the beginning. These active principles must necessarily have acted with the greatest vigour during the woodland
solitary

solitary condition of the parish before the coming of the Romans into it. No other period of its history could have given half such scope to the wasteful powers as the original and the British. The woods must have been not a little contracted in their size, a town had been long planted in the center of them, and the rest of our Arden must have been frequently traversed by the inhabitants their flocks and their herds, at the period of the Saxon ravages in Lancashire. And the woods must have been much more contracted in their size, the town that had been planted in the center of them must have been much more populous, and the remains of our Arden must have been much more frequently traversed by the inhabitants of it, at the later period of the Danish ravages in Lancashire.

Such was the aspect of our more immediate precincts during the period of the Roman residence among us, the softer ground of many of our vallies being converted into an impracticable morass, and the firmer ground of the hill and the plain being generally covered with woods. In these or the neighbouring woods of the county was bred nearly all that variety of wild beasts which I have shewn to be the natives of Britain, the segh-deer, the wolf, the bull, and the boar. The large branching horns of the segh have been found oftener in this than in any other county of the kingdom. One of them was dug up about seventy years ago at Larbrick near Preston, having the entire head of the stag and even the vertebræ of the neck adhering to it; a still larger was found a few years before in a moss at Meales, having equally the head adhering to it; and a third was fished out of the sea in 1727 near Cartmel¹¹. The wolf was once very common in Northumberland in Yorkshire and in Derbyshire, has given the appellation of Wulf-craggs to a long range of rocky precipices in our forest of Wierisdale, and within half a century before the Conquest was frequent in our forest of Rossendale¹². The wild bull found an agreeable residence in our Mancunian Arden, and even continued in one part of it, the extensive woods of Blakeley, as late as the fourteenth century¹³. And the wild boar roved at liberty over all the woods of the parish for many centuries

centuries after the Roman departure from the station, consigned the appellation of Barlow or the Boar-ground to a district in the south-westerly region of the parish, and retained its primæval abodes in the wilds of Blakeley to the commencement of the fourteenth century ¹⁶. Such were the native beasts of our woods at this period. And with them our Mancunian Arden produced a breed of hawks of herons and of eagles ¹⁷. The hawks were reclaimed by our Mancunian fathers from their wildness, and taught to pursue the feathered game at the command and for the use of their masters. And the beasts were roused by our Mancunian fathers from their dens, and were chased to the sound of the horn along the echoing banks of the Irke the Irwell the Mersey or the Medlock.

¹ Monasticon v. i. p. 658, and copy of Records in the British Museum N^o 2063, E. F, p. 176.—² Kuerden folio p. 278. and Spelman in Leuca from Ingulphus.—³ Kuerden folio p. 238:—⁴ A record in Collins's Peerage vol. vii. edit. 2. p. 24.—⁵ See a mistake therefore in Camden p. 616. concerning the etymology of Blackburne. The river of Blackburne has no more title than the Thames to the appellation of Black because of its waters.—⁶ Kuerden Folio p. 278.—⁷ Ibid.—⁸ Records ibid.—⁹ Camden c. 850. and Mortimer's Husbandry Part II. p. 27.—¹⁰ Mortimer's Husbandry Part II. p. 27.—¹¹ Camden p. 611. and Leland vol. vii. p. 41. The words of the latter are very remarkable: In the very tope of Chawmoure [called before Chateley More] where the mosse was the highest and brake, is now a fayre playn valley as was in tymes past, and a rill rennith in it, and peeces of smaull trees be found in the botome of it.—¹² II's M. S. p. 26. And Leland thus of Chatmoss: Chatley More a 6. myles in lengthe some way brast within a mile of Morley Haul, and destroyed moche grownd with mosse ther aboute, and destroyed moche freshe watar fiske therabout; first corruptyng with stinkyng watar Glasbroke, and so Glasbroke carried stinkyng watar, and Mersey corruptyd carried the roulluyng mosse, parte to the shores of Wals, parte of [to] the

Isle of Man, and some into Ireland (vol. vii. p. 41.)—" Leigh k. i. p. 62 and 63. and b. iii. p. 184 and the plate, and Phil. Transf. 1731 and 1732. p. 257.—The horns dug up at Larbrick were forty and forty-one inches and a half in length, were seven or eight inches round, twenty-three inches and a half distant from each other at the tips, but thirty-five about the middle, and had several branches shooting out in different directions from them (see the plate Tab. 5th in Leigh). And the horns found at Meales were even as large again (ibid. B. iii. p. 184). The brow-antlers in the latter were bigger than usually the arm of a man is, the beams were near two yards in height, and betwixt the two opposite tips of the horns, which was the farthest distance, were two yards likewise (ibid. B. I. p. 63). The former were soft and pliable when they were taken out of the earth, but afterwards grew hard and firm (ibid. B. i. p. 62.)—" Sax. Chron. p. 113, Camden p. 58 and 420, and Monasticon p. 658. vol. i. — " Leland vol. vii. part I. p. 42. Hearne. — " Leland ibid.—" Kuerden Folio p. 274, and Leland ibid.

V.

As the modes of Roman civility gradually prevailed among the Sittuntians, more and still more of their free villains would naturally be induced to quit the baronial villas in the remoter neighbourhood of Mancunium, and to settle with their brethren in the town. And, in the peculiar circumstances of the British states, the current of the Roman manners must have necessarily increased in its power and have expanded in its course, as it rolled down the three centuries and a half of the Roman residence among them. The dimensions of Mancunium must therefore have been enlarged by the successive accessions of inhabitants and the progressive additions of buildings. To the one original street which extended along the road of the Romans others must have been gradually annexed, and have shot out on the east, the west, and the north. Four or five years ago

ago was discovered a pavement near the south-western extremity of the area, extending more than two yards in breadth, and seeming to tend nearly parallel with the original street, the line of the road to Ribchester. And this must undoubtedly have communicated with it by a cross street. This actually communicated with it by no less than three cross streets. One was laid along the margin of the fosse, and the remains of it, a narrow causeway about a yard in breadth, have been recently dug up for several yards by the gardiner. Another was lately found along the northern hedge of the first great garden; and a third about an equal distance from both, remaining only about half a yard in width. And five or six years ago was discovered another pavement, situated almost as much to the east as the former was to the west of the principal street, and lying three yards in breadth and three quarters of a yard in depth. This commenced near the northern hedge of the Castle-field and in the middle of the private gardens, stretched obliquely across that and the neighbouring garden, pointed less obliquely across the neighbouring lane, and evidently carried a direction towards Aldporton Fold. And the three connecting streets on the west of the Ribchester street must have been assuredly answered by three others on the east, and the town have been modelled into a figure somewhat compact and squarish. The great body of the buildings must have occupied only the space which is now taken up with one great and several little gardens, which is bounded by the high bank, the stationary fosse, Aldport lane, and a garden, and which contains about seven acres and a half in extent. All this ground appears to be strikingly distinguished from the large garden to the north of it by the plainly factitious nature of its soil and by the dispersed rubbish of ancient buildings along it. In the intervals formed by the intersection of these streets some vacant area was certainly laid out for a market-place. Markets were first introduced into Britain by the Romans, and are therefore distinguished by the Roman appellation of *Marchnads* among the Welch, of *Marchats* among the Armoricans, and of *Margaidhs* among the Irish. Market-places are expressly declared

to have been originally laid out in the original towns of Lancashire'. And in the state of Lancashire under the Romans, when there were only eight towns within its ample dimensions, and when these were dispersed at a distance over the face of the county, every town must necessarily have had a market, and Manchester must have been a market-town from the first actual moment of its commencement. But the streets of Mancunium must have been all of them narrow. The first original street being constructed along the margin of the Roman road, the breadth of the latter must have been actually the width of the former. That I have previously mentioned to have been only about five yards in breadth. And the other streets of the town would certainly not be constructed of a greater, would probably not be constructed of an equal breadth. The streets even of Rome were very narrow in general; and when Nero rebuilt the city after the dreadful conflagration in 64, many of the Romans complained of his conduct, alledging the streets to be unwarily widened and the heat of the sun to be indiscreetly let in upon them'. And the streets of Silchester have been measured by the evident tracks in the corn and by the evident foundations on the sides, and are found to have been generally seven or eight yards only in breadth'. Such therefore must have been the streets of Mancunium, and the same inconvenient narrowness has continued nearly to the present century in all the subsequent streets of Manchester. These were all certainly paved by the Roman Britons. The Romans, who frequently spread a pavement of stones over the face of their British roads, would certainly not neglect to spread it, where it was much more requisite, on the streets of the British towns. The first and principal street must actually have been paved from the beginning, as the Roman road was paved along the borders of which the buildings of it extended. And all the remnants of streets that have been discovered within the area of the town were all regular courses of pavement.

Though the streets of Rome were so narrow, yet the buildings of Rome were remarkably lofty. They generally rose six seven
or

or eight stories in height. They were permitted by Augustus, even in his restraint upon the popular humour, to mount no less than seventy feet in height. And they were permitted by Trajan, even in his greater restraint of the same humour, to mount no less than sixty in height *. The elevation of the Mancunian buildings must have been much better proportioned to the width of the Mancunian streets. The houses must have been raised only a single story above the ground-floor, as such was the model of the Mancunium houses for many centuries afterward. And some of them at least must have sunk another story below it, as Cellaria, the Armorican Selliers the Irish Saileirs and the English Cellars, appear plainly from this their popular appellation among us to have been first constructed in Britain under the direction of Roman architects.

Bricks were pretty certainly made by the inhabitants of the antediluvian world, and were actually used in the first ages of their surviving descendants *. The art therefore must have been carried away by the several parties from Babel, upon the dispersion of the whole, into all the countries which they successively planted. And it accordingly appears to have been known to the earliest inhabitants of the east and of the west in general, and was probably known, though it does not appear, to the colonists of Britain in particular. It was actually known to their brethren of Gaul *. And our present appellation of Brick is actually derived to us from our British ancestors. The Romans appear to have had a brick-kiln at every stationary town. Their clay is generally found to be finely tempered, compactly kneaded, beautifully red, and compleatly burnt. And their bricks were constantly about sixteen English inches and three quarters in length and eleven and a quarter in breadth *. But the Romans of the first century never raised any structures of these materials, because they wildly supposed a party-wall that was merely the length of their bricks in breadth to be unequal to the support of a superior story *. The Mancunian houses therefore must not have been constructed of bricks. They must have been constructed of wood. Such universally were the houses of
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the primitive Britons, as I have shewed before. And such universally remained the houses of the Mancunians below the recent æra of the Restoration. Bricks as well as stones however must have been used in the foundations of the structures and in the funnels of the chimnies. And the chimney is undoubtedly a Roman addition to the British buildings; the round hole in the roof of the British house, such as we still see in the cabins of the Irish and the hovels of the Scotch, yet continuing merely an opening in the cieling as the fire was yet kindled in the middle of the hall⁸, but being elegantly altered into a cupola-chimney by the Romans. And the British names for a Caminæ, of Chimney, the Welch Shimmæ, the Cornish Tshimbla, the Armoric Shimilan and Sheminal, and the Irish Shimilean, are all therefore derived from the Roman language¹⁰.

The covering of the houses in the north of Europe was universally made of long reeds about the period of the erection of Manchester¹¹. But the Romans must have introduced into Britain the use of stramen or straw for this purpose. And the houses of Mancunium must have been generally roofed with a covering of it. Such was the general covering of the houses in London within these three centuries. Such was the general covering of the houses in Manchester within these two. But some of the more respectable structures must have been roofed with scindulæ, shingles, or boards. Shingles are the common roofing of the houses in all our American colonies. Shingles were the common roofing of the houses amongst ourselves in former ages¹². And shingles were the common roofing of the houses even at Rome for the long period of nearly five centuries¹³. But either these afterwards or others at the same period must have been covered with tegulæ, the Saxon tægles, the Armorican teolen, or tiles. These were first invented in Cyprus, were after the shingles the general roofing of the houses in Rome¹⁴, and appear sufficiently from their name to have been brought into Britain by the Romans. But there is another kind of roofing, which is now nearly universal in Manchester, and which must have been first introduced into it during this period. This is that

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light-coloured species of flaky stone, of which we have numerous quarries in England, and which we still denominate by its British appellation of Sglatta or slate. This is that white stone which Pliny mentions to be divided by the Celtæ more easily than wood, and to be sawed by them into thin plates for tiles ". This stony fossil was first divided into plates and first applied as tiles within the northern regions of Gaul, was so divided and so applied among them very commonly in the first century ", and still retains among the French its Celtic denomination of Esclate or slate. And as this use of it must have been introduced into Britain from Gaul, so it appears to have been actually introduced during the period of the Roman stay in the island. Some Roman buildings in Britain appear from the remains that have been found about them to have been actually covered with slates. And these the Britons fastened to the roofs of their houses with nails of iron, hooked, long, and large ".

The windows, guinedeus, or seeing-places in the Mancunian houses must have been generally composed of paper ". Properly prepared with oil, this forms no contemptible defence against the intrusions of the weather, and makes no contemptible opening for the admission of the light. This is still used by our architects for the temporary windows of unfinished houses, and is not unfrequently used in the precincts of Manchester for the regular windows of our workshops. And this is even used for the houses of many of the towns of Italy to the present moment. But some of the principal houses must have been windowed in a superior manner. None of them however were fitted with glass. No windows in Europe were formed of glass at this period. The Romans the Britons of this period never once thought of the seemingly obvious and certainly very agreeable application of this metal to windows. And that regularly laminated and brightly transparent fossil, Lapis Specularis or Ling-glass, which was first used in the windows of Rome about the reign of Augustus " and became very common before the close of the first century ", was assuredly never introduced into the buildings of Britain. The superior windows of Mancunium must

must have been furnished merely with lattices of wood or sheets of linen, as these two remained the only furniture of the windows even in our cathedrals nearly to the eight century". And the former continued in some of our meaner towns of Lancashire absolutely to the eighteenth, and continue in many parts of Wales and in many the adjoining parts of England even to the present moment. But the paper the lattices and the linen must have been fixed in frames and partitioned into squares. The frames were called *Caplamenta*, *Kaismeinte*, or *Casements*. The squares were denominated *Quadræ* or *Quadrellæ*, *Quarries* or *Quarrels*. And both were distinguished by the general appellation which still remains popular among us at Manchester, of a *Transenna* or *Transom*."

One or more wells must have been sunk in or near the town for the necessary supply of water to the inhabitants. One has been actually discovered, placed immediately on the outside of the town, and sunk for several yards in the rock. This was discovered about six or seven years ago upon the erection of the little alehouse which stands opposite to the gate of the Castle-field. Upon opening the ground to form the cellar of the house, an hole appeared in the rock about six feet in the square and entirely filled up with loose rubbish. This was made so soft and sludgy by the spring below, that a staff was easily thrust into it to the depth of four or five yards, and gave a temporary vent to the waters beneath. And three coins of brass were found in it and a piece of thick short gold-wire. The latter had not the happiness to meet with any man of taste, and was sold to an unknown person for thirteen shillings. And of the former two appeared to be lost when an inquiry was first made concerning them, and the third was in great measure ruined by the rust. No inscription could be perceived upon it, and even no traces of an inscription discerned, except such as fancy will perpetually suggest to the judgment upon the examination of faded remains. Wells so squared as this was in the opening, and so lined with hewn stones at the sides as this was with the native rock, have been discovered at Durnomagus or the town of Caister near Peterborough,

Borough, at *Procolitia* or *Carrabrough* in *Cumberland*, and at *Derventio* or *Littlechester* near *Derby*". And the excellent water of this and the other wells must have been raised out of them either by the assistance of a pole playing upon a transverse beam and loaded with a weight at the handle, by a common wheel, or by a little windmill. All these machines appear to have been early in use among the Romans". And all seem to have been equally simple and obvious in their construction.

To mark the flight of time by external and sensible representations, and so to distinguish the passing hours into stated periods and regular stages, was first the work of Him who appointed the revolutions of the night and the day, the returns of the Sabbath, the variations of the moon, the vicissitudes of the seasons, and the courses of the sun. But to ascertain the uniform progress of the day by the uniform motion of shades or substances, is an invention that is as curious in its nature as it was probably late in its discovery. It was certainly invented before the days of *Ahaz* the monarch of *Judæa*", and above two hundred years previous to the first inhabitation of *Lancashire*. This primitive dial seems to have been merely a simple diagram, which was described upon the steps of *Ahaz's* palace, and which marked the advance of the day by the shade of some neighbouring body gradually sweeping over the face of it. And this contrivance seems to have remained the only dial of the eastern nations for a couple of centuries afterward, and first received the addition of a regular gnomon from the hand of *Anaximenes* the *Milesian* at *Lacedæmon*". But the knowledge of this or of the other was introduced very late into the west. The Romans distinguished the day only by its two natural periods of sun-rise and sun-set even for some time after the promulgation of the twelve tables. And the first artificial division of the day was by the obvious distinction of noon. This began a few years afterward, the order of the consuls being ordered to proclaim the noon in their court when he saw the sun appear betwixt two particular points of the forum. But the Grecian dial passed with the Grecian colonies into *Sicily*. And the first that was ever seen

at Rome was brought from the conquered Catana in Sicily during the first Punic war, and was fixed upon a pillar by the rostrum. This dial however was inaccurately made, the lines not answering with precision to the hours. But it remained the irregular standard of the Roman hours for the period of no less than ninety-nine years. And five years after it was reformed Scipio Nasica invented an horologe which could be serviceable on the frequent occasions in which the other was useless, and marked the several stages of time as well under a cloudy as under a sunny sky and as well in the night as in the day. This was a large vessel which measured the course of the hours by the trickling of water, and which Scipio set up under cover for the use of the public²⁶. But the Britons must have been undoubtedly as ignorant of both at the period of the Roman invasion as the Romans were at the commencement of the first Punic war. And the first of the latter that was ever brought into the island must have been introduced into it by Cæsar and his army at his first or second attempt upon the country²⁷. Both must have been introduced into Britain by the Romans. Both must have been for ages the only registers of the day in Mancunium. And the one therefore received the appellation of Horarium or an Hour-thing, and the other assumed the name of Dial a Dial or Day-thing, among the Roman Britons.

The town of Mancunium must have contained within it the mansion of the baron, the dwellings of his immediately attendant villains, and the numerous houses of the artisans. The many occupations that had been pursued by the baronial villains before in the neighbourhood of the parish must have been equally pursued by the baronial villains now within the precincts of the town. The many mechanical professions that had been occasionally practised by single individuals before about the houses of the chiefs must have been now generally appropriated to particular persons and now regularly followed as particular occupations. The brazier the tinman the glazier the ironmonger, and others, artists all existing before the erection of Mancunium, must now all have existed in it. They were necessary to the

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mutual accommodation of the baron and the townsmen, and they must have been actually settled in it with the chief. The business of the *Plumbarius* or plumber, of the *Ferrarius* or farrier, of the *Tornator* or turner, of the *Apothecarius* or apothecary, of the *Barbarius* or barber, and the like, often exercised occasionally before by any of the chief's ambacton, appears from the Roman appellations of the artists to have been now first converted into a distinct occupation. And to these the Romans must have added the rest, the mercer the fuller the tavern-keeper and the like. The barber was entirely unknown at Rome for four hundred and fifty years, and was then first introduced by P. Ticinius Mæna from Sicily". The knowledge of medicinal herbs and of their influence in medicinal applications would naturally be cultivated in a military nation and was greatly attended to in the British. Thus we see a British chief in the Poems of Ossian, who "had searched for the herbs of the mountains, and gathered them on the secret banks of their streams," and whose "hand had closed the wound of the valiant." Thus also it is particularly declared of another, that "to close the wound was his, he had known the herbs of the hills, and he had seized their fair heads on high as they waved by their secret streams." And an acquaintance with the virtues of simples and a skill in the application of them to the body were till these later days universal among the Britons of Scotland".

* Agricola induced the new subjects of the empire (says Tacitus Agric. Vit. c. 21.) ut *Templa, Fora, Domos, extruerent.*—

* Tacit. Ann. lib. xv. c. 43.—* Phil. Transf. vol. xlv. p. 603.—

* Tacitus Ann. lib. xv. c. 4. and the Note in variorum edit.—

* Genesis ch. xi. ver. 3.—* Exodus c. v. and Pliny lib. xxxv. c. 14, and Varro de Re Rust. lib. i. c. 14.—* Pliny ibid.—* Pliny

ibid.—* Accenso foco in *medio*, et calido effecto coenaculo (in the year 627), Bede lib. ii. c. 13. See also lib. iii. c. 10.—* From the Cornish Tshimbla the mode of pronouncing the word which

now popularly prevails at Manchester, and which turns Chimney into Chimbley, appears to have descended to us from the antient Britons of Mancunium.—And see Suetonius in Vitellio c. 8. for Caminus a Chimney.—“ Pliny lib. xvi. c. 36.—“ Shingler is used in an antient statute as an appellation synonymous with Thatcher. So in 5 Eliz. sect. 30. *Tiler, Slater, or Helier, and Thatcher or Shingler.*—“ Pliny lib. xvi. c. 10.—“ Pliny lib. vii. c. 56. The Germans on the continent had no tiles; Ne—apud illos—tegularum usus (Tacitus de Mor. Germ. c. 16).—“ Pliny lib. xxxvi. c. 22.—“ Hearne’s Stunsfield Pavement in Leland vol viii. p. 30.—“ Guinedeu is undoubtedly derived from the verb Guened to see, a verb in Lhuyd under the article Candle. And this supercedes at once the many forced etymologies of the word. The final part of the word is most probably Aduy; and both together, Guined-aduy or Guined-duy, signify literally the Seeing-holes.—“ Seneca Ep. 90.—“ Pliny lib. xix. c. 5. and Martial lib. viii. E. 14.—“ See b. II. ch. viii. f. 3. The Lapis Specularis however seems plainly to have been used for those eye-glasses which we oddly distinguish at present by the Roman name of Spectacula or Spectacles, the Irish calling them to this day by the Roman name of the ising-glass window, Speculare or Speak-lair.—“ In Lancashire we still pronounce the word in the British manner, changing the M into P, and calling it Transop.—“ Moreton’s Northamptonshire p. 511, Stukeley’s Itin. p. 79, Horsely p. 145 and 146 and Stukeley’s Itin. p. 51.—“ Pliny lib. xix. c. 4. E Puteo Perticâ [or, as the context requires and some copies read, Rotâ] organisve neumaticis, vel tollenonum hauftu. And see a Tollenon described in Vegetius lib. iv. c. 21.—“ 2 Kings ch. xx. ver. 11.—“ Pliny lib. ii. c. 76.—“ Pliny lib. vii. c. 60.—“ Cæsar p. 89.—“ Pliny lib. vii. c. 59.—“ Ossian. vol. I. p. 247. and vol. II. p. 148. and Note.

V.

THE primitive Britons are charged by two of the most respectable historians, among the Romans with the gross barbarisms of a community of wives, incestuous loves, and unnatural mixtures *. And the accusation is too surely as just in itself as it is enormous in its nature *. A community of wives is the principal point in the charge; and the incestuous and unnatural cohabitations are mentioned merely as the result of the other. And this is not, as at first sight it may seem to be, repugnant to the British principles of gavelkind in private inheritances and to the British modes of succession in public. A particular provision was made, that the children of every wife should be reckoned as the progeny of the genuine husband *. Nor is this community at all contradictory, as at first it may seem to be, either to some particular notices in the Roman accounts or to the general tenor of the Poems of Ossian. In the former indeed Boadicia is mentioned as the appropriated wife of Prasutagus, another person is spoken of as the peculiar consort of Caractacus, and Cartimandua is named as the particular spouse of Venutius *. But the marrier of the maid was always esteemed as the husband of the wife *. And though in the Poems of Ossian we see the principle of matrimonial fidelity considered with delicacy and observed with religion among the British wives, yet this is very compatible with the accounts of the Romans. That principle might consist in a fidelity not to one but to several, to all the individuals that were incorporated into the society, who were generally ten or twelve in number, and who agreed among themselves to a community of wives *. And an habitual a national association of ideas will soon render any grossness agreeable to delicacy and will soon make any impurities compatible with religion.

The British females, after the introduction of spinning, so constantly employed in the gentle labours of the distaff the many hours of leisure which the want of literary amusements must have left particularly vacant to the sex in all ages, that the spindle became the symbol of the sex, and an estate devolving to

to the female line was formally said by the law to descend to the distaff. And thus engaged the British virgin was declared by the laws marriageable at fourteen¹. The lover regularly addressed himself first to the father of the maid, and requested his daughter in marriage. If the father agreed to the overture, he opened the hall of the maid, the apartment in which she generally sat retired from the men of the family, and introduced the suitor to his daughter². The period of courtship among the British women appears to have been generally as short as it was among the Patriarchal³. A few days concluded the suit. The absolute authority of the father over the child took away all power of refusal from the daughter⁴. If she disliked the lover whom her father recommended, she had no other resource than the tears of entreaty or the dangers of flight. The British wife, like the modern, brought generally a portion or Argyfrey with her⁵. And the British husband, like the modern, as generally made a settlement or Egweddi upon her previous to the marriage⁶. This did not however, like the modern, supersede her rights incident on survivorship; and she was intitled, if there were no children, to the full half of her husband's property⁷. And the ratio of this Egweddi was not left, as it is left among ourselves, to be determined by the indiscretion of the lover, the expectations of the lady, or the contests of over-reaching relations. It was absolutely ascertained by the law, and was twenty-four pounds for a king's daughter, three for a noble's, and one for a villain's⁸. This settlement differed essentially from the modern and coincided exactly with the Saxon in its import, as it took place immediately upon the marriage, and the wife was immediately invested with the property⁹. And the rite of marriage was celebrated by the father in the short form of giving up the maid to the suitor¹⁰. But after the marriage was another settlement, which was denominated Chowyll and answered to the Morgengife of the Germans, being made the morning after the marriage and actually before the couple arose from bed¹¹. In such a situation the man must have been in peculiar danger of acting indiscreetly with his fortune: and the law which so strangely exposed him to the danger was obliged in equity to protect him from

from it. It settled the chowyll decisively at eight pounds for a king's daughter, at one pound for a noble's, and at one hundred and twenty pence for a villain's¹⁹. And so ludicrously was the whole process of the chowyll adjusted by the law, that if the bride did not gain the settlement before she arose she had no title at all to it afterwards²⁰. And after she had gained it, if she did not declare before she rose the particular use to which she intended to apply it, the husband enjoyed it afterwards in common with her²¹. The husband was entitled either corporally to chastise his wife or to require a legal satisfaction from her for three crimes, for infidelity to his bed, for embezzling his goods, and for abusing his beard²². Either of the parties, as was equally the custom among the Jews, might require a divorce from the other²³. The itch or a foul breath were legally reckoned as good reasons for a divorce as impotence²⁴. And the divorce was sufficiently ratified by a mutual agreement in private. Thus Cartismandua the queen of the Brigantes divorced herself from her husband Venutius the monarch of the Jugantes²⁵. And thus Deugala, the wife of a Briton in Ireland, demanded and obtained an immediate divorce from her husband Cairbar²⁶. The whole substance of the family was regularly divided betwixt the parties; and, though two thirds of the children were consigned to the husband, one half only of the property was retained by him, and the other was carried away by the wife²⁷. And by a very sensible prescription of the law the parties were not restrained, as even in cases of adultery they are ordinarily restrained among ourselves, from an engagement in a second marriage²⁸. But, at least after the introduction of Christianity, if the bride was accused of any previous incontinence and could not clear herself by the rite of compurgation, her shift was torn up before and behind and she was dismissed by the husband, he putting previously into her hands the soaped tail of a young heifer, and if she could retain it by her hold allowing her to keep it for her portion²⁹. And, at least after the introduction of Christianity, adultery was punished with very great severity, the wife losing all her Egweddi as well as all her Argyfrey for the act, and even forfeiting the former for the mere wantonness of an indulged salute³⁰. When the wife was preg-

nant,

nant, she was bound about with a sanctified girdle. This was supposed to alleviate the pains and to expedite the birth. Such girdles are particularly mentioned in a remarkable passage of the British Poems, in which an hundred of them are promised by a chief as useful "to bind high-bosomed women" and as the "friends of the birth of heroes." Such girdles have been preserved nearly to the present times in many families of the northern Britons¹¹. The parental appellations among the primitive Britons were exactly the same as they remain among the inferior ranks of our people at present, Tat or Dad being the British name for a father, and Mam being the British term for a mother. And the parental appellations among the Roman Britons were exactly the same as they still remain among the superior orders of our people at present, the Tat and Mam of the British being changed into the Tata, Papa, and Mama of the Roman language.

The mode of interment among the primitive Britons and the primitive Gauls was either by consigning the remains entire and undefaced to the ground or by previously reducing them into ashes¹². The former is undoubtedly the most natural and obvious and must therefore have been the original form of sepulture in the world¹³. The latter is evidently a refinement upon the other, introduced at first in all probability to prevent any accidental indignities or to preclude any deliberate outrages upon the venerable remains of the dead. Thus introduced, the latter became frequent among the Britons, as the ashes that have been discovered in the British sepulchres upon Salisbury Plain abundantly testify¹⁴. But the primitive rite of burial was still generally retained in the island. In this manner pretty certainly was the illustrious Boadicia magnificently interred¹⁵. In this manner undoubtedly were all the heroes of Ossian buried¹⁶. And under both forms the body was either reposed in a cavity or was laid upon the surface of the ground, and a barrow was constructed over it. Thus formed are all the British burying-places upon the downs of Wiltshire, the moors of Cornwall, and the plains of Ireland¹⁷. And thus formed in Ireland was the grave of Lamdarg in particular, which composed a considerable knoll

on the margin of the northern sea³³. These barrows were sometimes made of the common soil around them, and were sometimes formed of three or four large slabs set upon an edge, closed with another slab above, inclosing a cavity for the body, and covered with cairns or heaps of little stones. Of the former species are all the barrows that have been opened upon Salisbury Plain³⁴. But the latter appears to have been far the commonest among us, and is found very frequently in Britain in Scotland and in Ireland. This model of a barrow appears to have been very antiently used among the provincials³⁵. And this model of a barrow continued very late among the Britons. It survived the introduction of christianity. It continued beyond the departure of the Romans. Many Roman coins have been discovered in one of these stone-barrows among the Cornish³⁶. And the Bedn Guortigern or grave of Vortigern in the mountains of Carnarvonshire was a large collection of small stones covering a Kist-vaen, a stony inclosure or chest, and protecting the body of the king repositied in it³⁷. In these barrows it was the practice of the Gauls and of the Britons to bury many particulars with the bodies which the deceased regarded in his life³⁸. Hence in the grave of a young British woman upon the plains of Sarum were found some years ago beads of amber, globules of glass, and the head of a spear, the ornaments of the girl and the weapon of the heroine³⁹. Hence the warriors in Ossian so frequently order their bow, their sword, the horn of their hunting, and a boss of their shield, to be laid with them at their death in the dark and narrow house of the grave⁴⁰. And hence the broken remains of swords, some half melted by the funeral-fire, have so frequently been found within the barrows of the British warriors in Cornwall⁴¹. This practice, a practice resulting from a just but wildly devious belief in the immortality of the soul, was carried to so great a length, that favourite animals were slain in honour of the deceased and their remains were buried in the same grave with them. The custom was observed universally in Gaul to the days of Cæsar⁴². And the custom was observed occasionally in Britain, some few of our bar-

rows upon Salisbury Plain disclosing these distinguishable remains, and the Poems of Ossian presenting us with a remarkable instance of it, the burnt bones of horses dogs and other animals being found mingled with human in the Wiltshire sepulchers, and Luath the dog of Cuchullin in the north of Ireland being actually interred with his master in the third century²⁹.

¹ Cæsar p. 89. and Dio p. 1007. In p. 1002 and the speech of Boadicia the children are said to be equally in common with their mothers. But this is certainly false (Cæsar p. 89).—² Mr. Rowland, Mr. Carte, and Dr. Macpherson have endeavoured to vindicate the Britons, Mona p. 246, History p. 71, and Crit. Diss. p. 140; and all equally in vain.—³ Cæsar p. 89.—⁴ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 31. and lib. xii. c. 36, 37, and 40.—⁵ Cæsar p. 189.—⁶ Cæsar p. 89.—⁷ Howel Dha lib. II. c. xv. a. 5.—⁸ Lib. II. c. i. a. 93.—⁹ Ossian vol. I. p. 50. and 115.—¹⁰ Ibid. and Gen. c. xxiv.—¹¹ Cæsar p. 121 of the Gauls.—¹² Lib. II. c. i. a. 48. And see Cæsar p. 121. for the portion of the Gallic women.—¹³ Lib. II. c. i. a. 89.—¹⁴ Lib. II. c. i. a. 13. and c. xxvii. a. 16.—¹⁵ P. 300.—¹⁶ Lib. II. c. i. a. 40. and lib. II. c. i. a. 73.—¹⁷ Ossian p. 50 and 77. vol. I.—¹⁸ Lib. II. c. i. a. 37. and Hickes's Pref. to Thesaurus p. 9.—¹⁹ Howel p. 300.—²⁰ Lib. II. c. i. a. 74.—²¹ Lib. II. c. i. a. 75.—²² Lib. IV. c. 5.—²³ Ossian vol. i. p. 31. and Howel lib. ii. c. 1.—²⁴ Lib. II. c. i. a. 12.—²⁵ Tacitus Ann. lib. XII. c. 40.—²⁶ Ossian vol. i. p. 31.—²⁷ Ossian vol. i. p. 31. and Howel lib. ii. c. 1. a. 3 and 5.—²⁸ Lib. II. c. i. a. 6, 11, and 16.—²⁹ Lib. II. c. i. a. 42. This is somewhat similar to the custom so well known in one or two manors of the kingdom, by which a widow that had forfeited her copyhold by incontinence was restored to it on coming into court mounted upon a black ram, holding the tail in her hand, and professing penitence.—³⁰ Lib. II. c. i. a. 36 and 35.—³¹ Ossian vol. I. p. 115.—³² Mela for the Gauls c. ii. lib. 3.—³³ See also Gen. c. xxiii.—³⁴ Stukeley's Stonehenge p. 10.—³⁵ Dio p. 1011.—³⁶ Vol. i. p. 140. &c.—³⁷ Stukeley c. 10. and Borlase c. viii. l. 3.—³⁸ Ossian vol. i. p. 42.—³⁹ Stonehenge

³⁹ Stonehenge c. 10.—⁴⁰ Oſſian paſſim. And ſee Crit. Diſſert. p. 315. —⁴¹ Borlaſe's Cornwall p. 299.—⁴² Kennet's Par. Ant. p. 698. And Carte p. 196. corroborates this account with the expreſs testimony of the old Welch bards, who aſſert this to have been the place of Vortigern's ſepulture.—⁴³ Cæſar p. 122 of the Gauls. —⁴⁴ Stonehenge p. 45.—⁴⁵ Oſſian vol. i. p. 55. &c.—⁴⁶ Borlaſe p. 238 and 239.—⁴⁷ Mela c. ii. l. 3.—⁴⁸ Cæſar p. 122.—⁴⁹ Stonehenge p. 46, Borlaſe p. 237, and Oſſian vol. i. p. 153.

VI.

THE art of drawing out our ideas into viſion and declaring the ſentiments of the mind by the ſpeaking imagery of characters could never have reſulted perhaps from any principle of human reaſoning, and muſt have been firſt ſuggeſted probably by the wiſdom of the Deity. Such an art became abſolutely neceſſary for a being like man, who required the extraordinary aſſiſtance of moral revelations to point out to him the line of his duty, and who needed the extraordinary interpoſition of conſolatory prophecies to encourage him in the practice of it. The divine declarations of duty and the divine predictions of redemption would neceſſarily be committed to writing for the ſame reaſon for which they were originally given, to preclude the fatal inconveniencies of miſtakes, and to inſtruct or confirm the future ages of the world: And one prediction we know to have been actually entrusted to writing even as early as the ſeventh generation only from Adam. This is that remarkable prophecy of Enoch which is formally cited by St. Jude, and of which a very ſolemn paſſage is tranſmitted to us by him.

The uſe of letters therefore is certainly prior to the æra which is commonly fixed for the introduction of them, the age of Moſes. As many divine revelations were certainly made to man, ſo many divine declarations were certainly committed to writing, before the period of the Moſaical works. And all the various combinations of the Noachidæ at Babel muſt have

a regular alphabet away with them to the places of their various dispersions. This most of them afterwards forgot. They must first have neglected and lost the code of divine laws and divine promises, as wishing not to be controuled by the discipline of the one, and having no longer therefore any satisfaction in the hope of the other. And they must afterwards have gradually forgot the letters which had been taught to their fathers, entirely for those ends, and the knowledge of which had been preserved among them entirely by those writings. The Gauls in particular had assuredly lost the use of their original alphabet, and in the days of Cæsar had adopted the Græcian from the neighbouring Greeks of Marseilles². The Britons also had forgot the knowledge of their original characters, and in the days of Tiberius had borrowed the Roman alphabet from the neighbouring Romans of Gaul. That the Britons were for ages before the invasion of Claudius not possessed of any British alphabet at all, we need no other argument to show, than that even in the days of Cunobeline and before the first settlement of the Romans among them the British coins exhibit constantly a foreign alphabet and present us perpetually with Italian characters. In the flourishing state of the British commerce during the reigns of Augustus and Tiberius, and in the frequent intercourse of the Britons with the Romans and Romanized natives of Gaul, the former adopted the letters which they found universal among the latter, and first introduced the Roman alphabet amongst us. This was the first perhaps that had ever been brought into the island. This was assuredly the first that had ever been introduced into Lancashire. And this useful invention which embodied thought and personified matter was instantly carried over the island, and appears from the coins of Durinum Eburo and Eifu to have reached into the region of the Durotriges in the west, and into the dominions of the Brigantes in the north, before the victories of Vespasian in the one and the conquests of Agricola in the other. We find even the most northerly states of Caledonia a little afterwards possist of an alphabet, and the celebrated Ossian in the third century making use

use of the Roman characters for his poems. From the shore of Caledonia letters must have been soon wafted over into Ireland. A continual intercourse was maintained betwixt the inhabitants of the two countries¹; and Ireland must certainly have received an alphabet before the period which is constantly assigned for the introduction of it, even one or two centuries at least before the days of St. Patrick². And the Cornish the Welch the Scotch and the Irish languages have from that period to the present invariably used the characters of the Romans in writing.

The want of a British alphabet naturally gave a ready admission to the Roman. The long residence of the Romans in Britain as naturally gave a free admission to the Roman language. And the latter became nearly as familiar to the British ears as the former to the British eyes. The Roman language seems to have been generally spoken by the Britons. Hence we find the sepulchral inscriptions of the Britons even after the departure of the Romans all uniformly inscribed in the Roman language. Such is Pabo's, such is Encon's, and such is Cadvan's, all three in the isle of Anglesey only³. And though the Roman could never have been likely to supersede the genuine language of the island, yet it appears to have been greatly incorporated with it, and to have furnished it with a sixth or a seventh of its present terms.

¹ This remarkable passage has been imagined by the generality of our critics not to be cited by St. Jude from any book of Enoch's existing in the days of the apostle, but to have been merely suggested to his mind by the power of inspiration. But this supposition, however general, is obviously an idle piece of critical refinement. The passage is as formally cited by St. Jude from the book of Enoch as the well-known line and half-line are quoted by St. Paul from Epimenides and Aratus. And these quotations may as justly be referred to the mere suggestions of inspiration as that. Reason is often obliged to appeal from Criticism to Common Sense.—² Cæsar p. 120.—³ Ossian passim.

⁴ See Ware, &c.—⁵ Mona plates 9 and 10.

WHEN

VII.

WHEN Claudius subdued the more southerly Britons, he prudently deprived them of their arms ¹. But when Ostorius took possession of his government over the conquered regions of Britain, he found the natives not disarmed at all by the preceding governors, and he disarmed such only as he particularly suspected of turbulent designs ². And on the peaceable settlement of the country and its chearful submission to the Romans all the Britons appear to have recovered their arms again. Hence, even on the doubtful confines of the north and in the dangerous neighbourhood of the Caledonians, we see the Britons indulged with their arms and constantly prepared for war ³. And hence some British Celts have been actually discovered in Cornwall wrapt up in a covering of linen ⁴, a species of cloth (as I shall afterwards shew) introduced into Britain by the Romans, and others have been found both in Cornwall and in Yorkshire accompanied with Roman coins ⁵. Many of the Britons were levied for the foreign service of the Romans, and were sent in different bodies to different parts of the continent ⁶. Many of the Britons were equally levied for the service of the Romans at home, and were sent in bodies to the armies in action or to the garrisons on the borders. For these purposes only could the Romans have allowed any arms at all to the Britons. And several bodies of them are mentioned in Tacitus and in inscriptions to have been actually engaged in battle against the northern Britons or actually stationed upon duty along the northern wall ⁷. These must have been demanded of the states in rotation by the Romans. These must have been raised among the subjects in rotation by the monarchs. Each body must have marched to the place of destination commanded by the monarch or his deputy, and marshalled under the standard of the kingdom; and each subordinate chief in it must have commanded his own ambacton under the general,

and have ranged them under his own standard. Such was the general disposition of the British forces ⁸. And these bodies must have been all armed after the British mode, with brass swords, brass Celts, the spear, the dagger, the scythed chariot, and the bow. These British implements of war would be fully sufficient in themselves against the similarly armed Britons of the north. The Roman auxiliaries constantly retained their own weapons of war ⁹. And the copper swords and the brass Celts of the Britons have been found folded up in Roman-British linen and attended by Roman-British coins.

The military discipline of the Britons was greatly superior to the ideas which are universally entertained concerning it. They commonly encamped behind a stream for fear of a surprize by night ¹. They lighted their fires and posted their centinels about the camp ². They even had regularly what they denominated "The troop of the night," which was stationed at some distance from the camp, to descry the remotest approaches of an enemy, and to guard the more effectually against a sudden attack ³. Their commanders frequently walked the rounds in the night, and personally inspected the order and disposition of the men ⁴. And they had certain appointed signals for the day or the night, the several "voices of their kings, which the warriors received from the wind and marked over all their tribes ⁵." These were given either by the general's horn, by the beating of his shield, or by the exertion of his voice ⁶. The shield of the commander was fitted with several hollow bosses, each of which was occasionally beat upon with his spear and emitted a loud and a different sound ⁷. As the general struck the shield of his alarms, the warriors of the night moved on to their post ⁸. As another boss was sounded, the bards acknowledged the summons and immediately attended his person ⁹. By one signal from the shield the troops were ordered instantly to advance and begin the fight, as by a second they were commanded to discontinue the fight and to retreat ¹⁰. The troops marched up to the attack beneath the sounds of their military songs, the bards beginning the chaunt and the troops taking it from them, till the

the whole army re-echoed with the storied deeds of their fathers and with the predictions of ruin on their enemies ¹. And the bards constantly attended upon the general in the hour of battle. As his aids in the field, they were ready to carry occasionally his orders to the chiefs ². As the poets of the state, they were useful to invigorate occasionally the fainting courage of the men with songs ³. And, as they sang the song of peace, the battle ceased along the field ⁴.

Though the Romans modelled the British troops into cohorts, they left them, as they left all their auxiliaries, to follow their own discipline in war ⁵. But from the constant intermixture of the British and the Roman forces the officers of the former necessarily learnt, and sometimes occasionally introduced into their armies afterwards, the Roman disposition in battle ⁶.

Thus must all the Britons have been successively called out into service. Thus must a military skill have been continually cultivated among the British gentlemen. And thus must a military spirit have been continually kept alive among the British villains.

¹ Dio p. 959.—² Tacitus Ann. lib. xii. c. 30.—³ Ossian vol. I. p. 130.—⁴ Camden p. 137.—⁵ Borlase p. 283.—⁶ Vit. Agric. c. 13. and Gruter.—⁷ Agric. V. c. 29. and 32, and Horsley N^o 20 Scotland and 76 Northumberland.—⁸ Ossian vol. I. p. 57.—⁹ Vegetius lib. ii. c. 2.—¹⁰ Ossian vol. II. p. 39.—¹¹ Vol. I. p. 235.—¹² Vol. I. p. 18.—¹³ Vol. II. p. 39.—¹⁴ Vol. II. p. 128.—¹⁵ Vol. I. p. 66, 77, &c.—¹⁶ Vol. II. p. 85, 87, 129, and 130.—¹⁷ Vol. I. p. 19.—¹⁸ Vol. II. p. 130.—¹⁹ Vol. II. p. 85 and 87.—²⁰ Vol. II. p. 56 and 106.—²¹ Vol. II. p. 50, and Dio p. 1010.—²² Vol. I. p. 54.—²³ Vol. I. p. 56.—²⁴ Vol. I. p. 118 and 140, and Diodorus p. 354, for Bards. See also Cæsar p. 90 for Address in war.—²⁵ Vegetius lib. ii. c. 2.—²⁶ Huntingdon f. 180 and 181. at the battles of Beranbury and Wodnesbury.

C. H A P. XI.

I.

WHEN guilt had introduced the foreign principle of shame into the human mind, and had made the foreign covering of cloaths requisite to the decencies of the human body; when vengeance had charged the seasons with inclemency and had armed the elements with unkindness against the votary of sin, and had made an artificial warmth often necessary to the health of his frame; the skins of beasts must naturally have been the first clothing of man. The flocks and the herds around him presented their woolly or their hairy garments to his hand. And the Mosaical records demonstrate him to have used them *. This species of cloathing continued regularly among the descendants of Adam for a long succession of ages. And our own Britons in particular retained it to the days of Cæsar *. But this must have been prepared in various manners and modelled into various shapes. And even in skins elegance must have naturally succeeded to convenience.

The next improvement in the drapery of man would be to separate the fleece from the hide, to consign the latter to the covering of tents or the lining of couches, and to combine the former by itself into vests. And this considerable improvement appears to have been actually made within few ages after the dispersion *. Made originally in the east, it must have afterwards taken its course into the west. But the mere refinements of dress will always spread very slowly through nations military and roving. This in particular appears not to have made its entrance

Cæsar.

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into Britain till fourteen or fifteen ages at least after its original commencement, and till an hundred or an hundred and fifty years before the period of Cæsar's invasion. At the æra of that invasion, the use of woollen vestures was nearly confined to the Belgic colonies in the south. And most of the original Britons still retained the original dresses of their fathers'.

When the county of Lancaster stooped with a forced subjection to the arms and bowed with a cheerful submission to the virtues of Agricola, many woollen manufactories were then carried on with success within the circuit of the Roman empire. A very considerable one was particularly established in Gaul. This was a manufactory of that plaided drapery which I have mentioned before. And this had been long protected by the inhabitants of Gaul. This therefore, in the open commerce that was carried on betwixt the Gauls and the Britons, must have been necessarily wafted over into Britain, and was actually introduced into the island by the commercial colonists upon its coasts. These colonists appear equally to have used the drapery among them and to have not imported it from the continent. Such must have certainly been the original commencement of a manufactory in Britain, which has since been of such political consequence to the nation, the source of all her accumulated wealth, the basis of all her extended power! But this manufactory could not long have been confined within the pale of the Belgic states. Even in the days of Cæsar several of the British monarchs seem already to have introduced it into their own kingdoms. And from them it must have been easily diffused and appears to have been actually spread over the whole face of the island. Such must have certainly been the original commencement of a woollen manufactory in Lancashire, which has since been of such considerable importance to it, the kind origin of all its commerce, the beneficial occasion of all its greatness!

But this manufactory must have made little progress in Lancashire before the epoch of the Roman advance into the county. The Sissuntian monarch must have invited artists and imported implements from the south; and each Sissuntian baron had pro-

bably a loom in the offices of his house, worked by some of his own retainers, and furnishing himself and his own family with this agreeable clothing. But the manufactory of the Britons must have been greatly improved by the Romans. And the woollen manufactory of Lancashire in particular was probably carried by the Romans nearly to all that standard of mixt perfection at which it was prosecuted about two or three centuries ago among us.

The woollen manufactory must necessarily have been prior in its origin to the linen. The fibrous plant from which the linen threads are produced seems to have been first noted by the eye, and first worked up into cloth by the hand, of the inhabitants of Egypt. That at least is the first kingdom which we find possessed of the diacy. And there the origin of the manufactory must have been remarkably early, as even at the æra of the ministry of Joseph it had risen to a very considerable degree of refinement". For many centuries afterwards, the Egyptians had large plantations of flax among them, and Egypt remained the great staple of the linen manufactory". From this kingdom it was probably carried with every other art into Greece, and plainly appears from the use of its Greek appellation among the Romans to have been brought by the Greeks into Italy. And Italy must have carried her military settlements and her linen manufactory together into Spain, Gaul, Germany", and Britain. That this was really the case, is sufficiently shown by the German the French the Spanish and the British appellations for flax or linen, all these nations having originally adopted the Roman *Linum* for it, and all of them retaining it almost without any variation at present.

Flax must have been originally a native of the east, the western flax being evidently a degenerate species of the eastern, and the eastern being still constantly imported among us. It must have been first planted in the soil of Britain by the Romans, and the present manner of working it into cloth is evidently Roman. Being plucked up by the roots and formed into bundles for the hand among the Romans, it was hung up to dry in the sun and

was afterwards steeped in a river or a pool. When the plant was sufficiently macerated in the water, it was dried in the sun and was beaten upon a stone with a mallet. The interior and finer filaments being extracted, and fifteen pounds of filaments being deduced from fifty of bundles, it was carried to the distaff and wound into thread. This was softened and smoothed by being frequently taken out of the water and dashed against flints, was woven into cloth, and was beaten with keys ¹⁴.

This linen or flaxen manufactory must have been introduced into the island with the first settlements of the Romans in it. And the coarser manufactory of hemp must have been equally introduced by the Romans. Hence the Roman appellation for hemp, *Cannabis*, is strongly resounded in the *Kanab* of the Armoricans and the *Kannaib* of the Irish, and is softly echoed in the Saxon *Hænep* and the English *Hemp*. The plant seems equally with flax to have been brought from the east. In the first century, the best European hemp was imported from Asia, and the plant was not very common in Italy ¹⁵.

The naval cordage of the first ages was in all probability thongs of leather. The hide which covered the tent, formed the bed, and cloathed the body, would naturally offer the most obvious supply of cordage to the mind of man. And as the northern inhabitants of Britain actually retained these primitive ropes in the third century ¹⁶, so the nations to the north of the Baltic retained them to the ninth or tenth ¹⁷. In other nations these had been early superseded by the use of vegetable threads and the arts of combining them into strength. In this manner the Greeks appear to have used the common rushes of their country. In this manner the Carthaginians appear to have used the *spartum* or broom of Spain ¹⁸. And as all the cordage of the Romans was made of these materials at the æra of their last descent upon our country ¹⁹, so must the art of forming them into cordage have been necessarily introduced with the Romans at the period of their settlements among us. Beneath the direction of the Roman artists, our thongs of leather must have been laid aside, and the *junci* or rushes of our plains have been worked up into cordage.

cordage. And hence, and hence only, the remnants of old cables are still distinguished among our sailors by the popular appellation of old junk.

The nations of Roman Britain and the tribes of Caledonia and Ireland had inherited from their earliest ancestors many of the ruder arts of navigation²⁰. Their ships were large, open boats, framed of light timbers, ribbed with hurdles, and lined with hides²¹. In these vessels they transported small armies from South-Britain to Gaul, from Caledonia to Ireland, and from Ireland to Silley²². These were furnished with masts and sails. The sails must have consisted of hides, as the tackle was composed of thongs. The sails were never furled, and were only bound to the mast²³. The sails were actually composed of hides among the commercial Veneti upon the continent and as late as the days of Cæsar²⁴. But these slight sea-boats and their rude furniture must have been soon dismissed by the provincials for the more substantial vessels and the more artificial sails of the Romans. The sails of the Romans were composed of flax in the days of Agricola²⁵. These however must have been afterwards superseded by the stronger sheets of hemp; and our sails are therefore denominated by our mariners to the present moment *cannabis* or *cannafs*. And about the same period assuredly must the junk of the British cordage have given way to the same materials, the use of hempen ropes upon land and of hempen nets for hunting being both very common among the Romans in the first century²⁶.

The commencement of letters I have already shown to have been considerably previous to the flood. These letters were first inscribed perhaps, according to the tradition of the heathens, upon the broad leaves of the palm²⁷. The leaves of the palm, the bark of various trees, sheets of lead and lincn, and tables of wax, were successively used as the paper of the antients. The famous reed of Egypt which furnished the first materials, and gave the present denomination to paper was discovered immediately before the æra of the demise of Alexander, and was for a long time supposed to be peculiar to the banks of the Nile. And the ex-

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portation of it being occasionally prohibited by one of the Egyptian monarchs, Ptolemy king of Egypt and Eumenes king of Attalia contending with each other in the growing magnificence of their libraries, and the sagacity of the human understanding being excited by the force of emulation, a new species of paper was invented at Pergamus in Attalia, and was denominated Pergamenum or Parchment from the city¹. Of the reed Papyrus, which was afterwards found equally in other regions of the east, all the paper of the Romans was made at their first entrance among us and for many ages after their departure from us². The Britons, who had no letters, could have no paper. And the Romans must have introduced both paper and parchment into the island. Hence the former is denominated Pappyr among the Welch, Paper and Pabaur among the Armoricans, and Phaïpear among the Irish. Hence the latter has received from the Roman Pergamenum the appellation of Parthemin among the Armoricans, and from the Roman Membrana³ has derived the denomination of Memrun among the Welch and of Meambrun among the Irish. And a coarse manufactory of paper and parchment must have been certainly introduced into Britain with the knowledge of them.

The primæval inhabitants of Britain were equally unacquainted with the making of salt. This agreeable and useful article in our food during the reigns of Augustus and Tiberius was imported by foreign merchants into the south-western regions of Britain⁴. And had it been made at all in the kingdom, it must have been made within that region of it particularly, and in such quantities as under the circumstances of the island would have absolutely prevented any importation at all. The Romans had long been acquainted with the art⁵. And they introduced it very early into Britain. The first attempt would naturally be the easiest, and confined to the margin of the sea. And a very considerable quantity of the finest and the firmest salt in Europe appears to have been made upon the shores of Britain in the fourth century⁶. But the Romans had been long instructed to search for the springs of brine in the ground, and

to boil the water into glebes of salt¹. And they actually opened some Salinæ, Salainnans, or salt-pits before the middle of the second century. The first that were opened seem to have been the salinæ which were situated in the country of the Cat-ticuchlani or Cassii and have given denomination to the present Salndy in Bedfordshire². About the same period or very soon after it other salinæ were sunk at Droitwich in Worcestershire³. And posteriorly to both must the Romans have discovered the salt-springs of Cheshire and have opened the requisite wells to them⁴. These new salinæ lay near to the Roman-British Condate, and must have been the present brine-pits of Northwich. The salt-spring at Condate lies sixteen or seventeen yards below the surface: but at Northwich it rises into light. The latter therefore would naturally be discovered long before the former, though the spring at Northwich was at the distance of three or four miles from the station, and the spring at Condate flowed actually within the area of it; as the mines of solid salt at the same Northwich lay concealed beneath the ground and unknown to us all till the year 1670. And the towns of Salndy Droitwich and Northwich arose successively in consequence of these salt-pits, and were constructed immediately in the vicinity of them⁵.

¹ Gen. xxxi. 21.—² Cæsar p. 89.—³ Gen. xiv. 23. and xxxviii. 12.—⁴ Cæsar p. 89.—⁵ Pliny lib. viii. c. 48.—⁶ Pliny *ibid.* and Strabo p. 301.—⁷ Strabo *ibid.*—⁸ Cæsar p. 89. *Interiores pellibus sunt vestiti*, and Strabo p. 305 and 307. for imports.—⁹ Cæsar p. 89. *Plerique interiores pellibus sunt vestiti.*—¹⁰ Ossian vol. i. p. 140. and 156. In the latter page we have the robe of an Irish or extra-provincial woman mentioned. And in the former we have the robe of a provincial woman opposed to it.—“She is seen, Malvina, but not like the daughters of the Hill; her robes are from the strangers land.”—¹¹ Gen. xli. 42.—¹² Exodus ix. 21. and Pliny lib. xix. c. 1.—¹³ See Pliny *ibid.*—¹⁴ *Ibid.*—¹⁵ Pliny lib. xix. c. 9.—¹⁶ Ossian vol. i. p. 106.—¹⁷ See Alfredi *vita*.

vita per Spelmannum p. 205. for king Alfred's preface to his version of Orosius.—¹⁴ Pliny lib. xix. c. 2.—¹⁵ Ibid.—¹⁶ Cæsar p. 240. and Pliny lib. iv. c. 16.—¹⁷ Cæsar and Pliny ibid. and Solinus c. 22.—¹⁸ Offian vol. i. p. 106 and 41, and Cæsar p. 73. And Cæsar transported troops in such boats across a great river in Spain (p. 240).—¹⁹ Offian vol. i. p. 41, 45, and 75.—²⁰ Cæsar p. 55. and Dio p. 212. From this account of the state of navigation among the Caledonians of the western coast Solinus appears certainly to have been mistaken in c. 22, where he represents the passage across the Irish sea to have been so dangerous in these curroghs. And in the isle of Sky they used these leathern boats upon all ordinary occasions within these hundred years (Crit. Dissert. p. 325).—²¹ Pliny Proem. and c. i. l. 19.—²² Pliny c. ii. and ix. l. 19.—²³ Pliny c. xi. l. 13.—²⁴ Ibid.—²⁵ Ibid.—²⁶ Ibid.—²⁷ Strabo p. 265.—²⁸ Pliny c. vii. l. 31.—²⁹ Camden p. 194.—³⁰ Pliny c. vii. l. 31.—³¹ Ptolemy and Camden c. 339. and Itin. Cur. p. 74.—³² Richard's tenth Iter and Ravennas.—³³ Ravennas, Derventione, Salinis, Condate.—³⁴ Mines of rock-salt were known to the ancients. Sunt et montes nativi salis, says Pliny, ut in Indis Oromenus, in quo Lapidicinarum modo creditur renascens. lib. xxxi. c. 7.

II.

THE first foreign commerce of the Britons was occasioned by the resort of the Phœnicians to their coasts. These bold adventurers in navigation and traffic, having planted colonies at Carthage and at Cadiz, and ranging along the borders of the great untraverled ocean on the west, reached the south-western promontories of Britain, and entered into a trading correspondence with the inhabitants of it. The real singularity and the commercial consequences of the voyage gave great reputation to the officer who conducted it, and have occasioned the name of Midacritus to be transmitted with honour to posterity. Midacritus brought the

the first vessel of the Phœnicians to our coasts. And Midacritus opened the first commerce of the Phœnicians with our fathers. He found the country to abound particularly with tin, a metal that was equally useful, and rare. He trafficked with the Britons for it. And he returned home with a cargo of the silvery metal¹.

Such was the first faint effort of the commercial genius of Britain, which was afterwards to conduct the vessels of the island to the shores of Cadiz of Carthage and of Tyre, and even to raise the Britons superior in boldness and in skill to the Phœnicians! Such was the first faint effort of the commercial genius of Britain, which has since displayed such a variety of powers, has since opened such a variety of channels, and has diffused the overflowing tide of the British commerce into all the quarters of the globe! This effort was first made some years before the time of Herodotus and about the period of the first inhabitation of Lancashire, about five hundred years before the æra of Christ². The Belgæ were not yet landed in the island. The original Britons still possessed all the southern regions of it³. And the trade was opened with the Britons of the Cassiterides or Silley islands⁴. These islands were then only ten in number, though they are now more than an hundred and forty; and only nine of them were inhabited as late as the reign of Tiberius⁵. But one of them was greatly superior in size to the rest, and was therefore distinguished by the general appellation of the whole, being denominated Cassiteris Insula or the one Tin-island⁶. This was the first land of Britain which the Phœnicians reached and with which Midacritus began the traffic for tin⁷. This was known amongst the Britons by the appellation of Silura, and must have communicated the still-remaining name of Silley to its contiguous isles⁸. And this was then a very considerable island, being separated only by a dangerous strait from the shore of Cornwall⁹, and reaching beyond the present uninhabited islet of Silley. The present isles of Brehar, Guel, Trefcaw, St. Martin's, and St. Sampson's, the rocks and islets ad-

Joining to all, and St. Mary's and the Eastern isles, must all have composed this original island. And large banks still extend from St. Martin's nearly to St. Mary's and the Eastern isles, which are all uncovered at low water and have only a depth of four feet at high. The isles of Guel and Brehar, now half a mile distant from the rock of Silley, appear plainly to have been once connected with it. And Trescaw, Brehar, St. Martin's, St. Sampson's, and their adjoining islets, were once evidently united together. Sands extend from Brehar to Trescaw, and may sometimes be crossed on foot. Betwixt Trescaw, Brehar, and St. Sampson's the flats are laid entirely bare at the recess of a spring-tide, and a dry passage is opened over the sand-banks from the one to the other. In these banks, over which the tide rises ten or twelve feet in depth, hedges and walls of stone are frequently disclosed to the view by the shifting of the sands. And from the general remains of stone-hedges stone-walls and contiguous houses, and from the number of barrows which are dispersed over the face of these islands, the whole appears to have been once fully cultivated and thoroughly inhabited.

This island was peculiarly replenished with mines of tin, though the present unburied remains of it exhibit no vestiges of the antient works and scarce carry any appearances of the antient metal. But in the month of May 1767 a rich vein of tin was discovered in St. Mary's, which bore directly into the sea and pointed towards the shore of Cornwall. And the cargo which Midacritus brought from the island, and the account which he gave of it and its contiguous isles, occasioned a regular resort of the Phœnicians to the coasts of Silley. The trade was infinitely advantageous to the state. And the track was most solicitously concealed by the public.

Thus continued the trade of Britain for nearly three hundred years, being esteemed the most beneficial commerce in Europe, and being carefully sought after by all the commercial powers in the Mediterranean. The Greeks of Marseilles first followed the track of the Phœnician voyagers, and some time before the days of Polybius and about two hundred years before the

the age of Christ began to share with them in the trade of tin¹¹. The Carthaginian commerce declined. The Massylian commerce increased. And in the reign of Augustus the whole current of the British traffic had been gradually diverted into this channel¹². At that period the commerce of the island was very considerable. Two roads (as I have formerly mentioned¹³) were laid across the country, and reached from Sandwich to Carnarvon on one side and extended from Dorsetshire into Suffolk on the other; and the commerce of the coasts must have been carried along them into the interior regions of the island. The great staple of the tin was no longer settled in a distant corner of the island. It was removed from Silley, and was fixed in the isle of Wight, a central part of the coast, lying equally betwixt the two roads, and better adapted to the new arrangement of the trade¹⁴. Thither the tin was carried by the Belgæ, and thither the foreign merchants resorted with their wares. And the trade was no longer carried on by vessels that coasted tediously along the winding shores of Spain and of Gaul. It was now transported over the neighbouring channel, was unshipped on the opposite coast, and was carried upon horses across the land or by boats along the rivers to Marseilles and to Narbonne¹⁵.

The Isle of Wight, which as late as the eighth century was separated from the remainder of Hampshire by a channel no less than three miles in breadth, was now actually a part of the greater island, disjoined from it only by the tide and united to it always at the ebb¹⁶. And during the recess of the waters the Britons constantly passed over the low isthmus of land, and carried their loaded carts of tin directly across it¹⁷. Such also were many other islands on the southerly shore of Britain, appearing as islands only on the tide of flood, and becoming peninsulas at the tide of ebb¹⁸. It is curious to mark the different operations of the sea upon the different parts of the English coast. The sea has gained considerably upon the shores of Yorkshire Norfolk Suffolk and Essex, the eastern coast of Kent, and the coasts of Sussex Hampshire Dorsetshire and Cornwall¹⁹.

in these forty years it has greatly usurped upon the Silley islands in general¹⁹, and even from May 1766 to May 1767 it encroached near forty inches upon one of them in particular. And these gradual and successive depredations, these and these alone, must assuredly have been the cause that has been so vainly explored in the annals of history, and that has reduced the Silley islands to their present condition. These, and not the violence of an earthquake or a tempest, must assuredly have widened the narrow turbid strait of Solinus into an ample and calm expanse of thirty or forty miles, have covered half the great island of Silura with the waters of the ocean, and have left only its mountains and its promontories rising like so many islets above the face of the waves. These appear from the experience of the recent ravages in the islands to be a cause too unhappily adequate to the effect. And the same cause has greatly plundered the coasts of North-Devonshire Pembrokehire and Cardiganshire²⁰. But the sea has resigned a part of its original domain on the southern shore, of Kent in Lincolnshire and in Lancashire. In Kent it has retreated from the shore of Sandwich, has sunk the small æstuary of Solinus into an insignificant current, and has converted the fine harbour of Rhutupæ, where the Roman fleet was regularly laid up, into an expanse of rich pastures and a valley watered with a rivulet²¹. In Lincolnshire it has added a considerable quantity of ground to the coast, shrinking from the original boundaries, and leaving many thousands of acres betwixt the old bank of its waters and the present margin of its shore²². And in Lancashire the sands which originally formed the beach of the sea and were originally covered every tide with its waters are now regularly inhabited. These are still distinguished among us by the appellation which they received from the Britons, and which is equally common to the sea-sands of Lincolnshire Norfolk and Wales, the appellation of Meales or loose quaggy lands²³. But loose as they once were by nature, and quaggy as they were once made by the overflowing of the tide, they are now annually cultivated, a parochial church has been erected, and a village has been constructed upon them.

In this state of the British commerce, the articles imported into the island were earthen-ware, salt, and brass both wrought and in bullion²². In this state of the British commerce, tin was not, as it had been originally, the only export of the island. It still remained the principal article of our foreign trade²³. But with it were exported gold, silver, iron, and lead, hides, cattle, corn, slaves, and dogs, gems and muscle-pearls²⁴, polished horse-bits of bone, horse-collars, amber toys, and glass vessels²⁵.

Such was the nature of our foreign commerce when the Romans settled among us. And it instantly received a considerable improvement from the Romans. This appears sufficiently from that very remarkable particular in the interior history of the island, the sudden rise and the commercial importance of London within a few years after their first settlement in the island²⁶. But the trade was no longer carried on by the two great roads to the southern shore, and the staple was no longer settled in the Isle of Wight. The principal trade still appears to have been confined to the south in general and to the regions of Middlesex Kent Suffex and Hampshire in particular. But the commerce was diffused over the whole extent of the Roman conquests, and was carried on directly from the western and the eastern shores as well as from the southern. Thus new ports were opened on every side of the island, most indeed about the south-eastern angle of it, but some along the eastern and the western coasts. Thus Middlesex had the port of London, Kent the ports of Rhutupæ Dubris and Lemanis, Suffex had the ports Adurnum Anderida and Novus, and Hampshire had the port Magnus²⁷. And thus Yorkshire had its port Felix on one side, and Lancashire had its port Sifuntian on the other²⁸. These were evidently the commercial ports of the Roman Britons. Had they been merely the useful harbours upon the coasts, as they must certainly have been much more considerable in number, as they must certainly have been mentioned upon every part of our coasts, so must they have been equally noticed upon the coasts of Caledonia and the shores of, Ireland. They were all of them

harbours

harbours first used by the Romans, they had all of them cities first raised by the Romans upon them, and under the Romans they must all have become considerable ports for commerce". And the articles introduced into the island at these ports were the many particulars which I have previously mentioned to have been introduced into Britain by the Romans, and sugar, pepper, ginger, writing-paper, and other similar articles perhaps, besides them. The saccharum or sugar of the Romans, like our own, was the extracted honey of a cane, was brought from Arabia or from India, and was used only for medicinal purposes". And all these spices appear plainly from their Roman-British appellations to have been actually imported among us by the Romans. And the articles exported from the island must have been partly the same as before, and partly the additional particulars of gagates or jet, the British jet being the best and the most copious in Europe", bears for the foreign amphitheatres, baskets, salt, corn, and oysters".

Such was the foreign commerce of the island in general during the residence of the Romans among us. And such must have been in part or in whole the foreign commerce of our own port in particular. This was not merely the port of a single country. It was the only commercial harbour along the whole line of the western coast, and had no rival from the Cluyd to the Land's-End. And the exports of the neighbouring region, the lead of Derbyshire and the salt of Cheshire, the corn the cattle and the hides of the whole, must have been all shipped at the port of the Ribble. The British dogs in general were a very gainful article of traffic to the Romans". And as all the interior countries of Britain, then first turned up by the plough, must have produced the most luxuriant harvests at first, so the whole island freighted no less than eight hundred vessels with corn every year for the continent".

Thus was a foreign commerce first introduced into Lancashire, where it now flourishes in so vigorous a state, and where it has now branched out to so large an extent. And thus was the first

scene of its residence upon the banks of the beautiful Ribble. There Ribchester enjoyed all the varied emoluments of it. The voice of tradition asserts and the discovery of ruins evinces the village of Ribchester to have been once a very considerable city, to have been superior to Manchester in grandeur, and to have excelled perhaps all the towns of the north in wealth. And the commerce of the Sifuntian port is the only assignable reason, the commerce of the Sifuntian port was undoubtedly the genuine cause, of all its particular importance.

Ribchester was not, like Freckleton, necessarily planted upon a disagreeable site, and had not, like it, a large extent of low marshy grounds sweeping for several miles on both sides of the river, overflowed with the waters at every tide, and loading the air with rank exhalations at every recess. Ribchester, like London, was fixed at a distance from the sea and upon an agreeable site, and enjoyed, like it, the advantage of a fine air from the dry nature of the soil around it and from the lively flow of the river before it. And the Roman town at the Neb of the Nele was only as the Greenock of Glasgow the Shields of Newcastle or the Freckleton of Preston at present. It must have been inhabited solely by such as were retained in the more immediate service of the vessels. All the traders must have resided, and all the commercial business must have been transacted, at Ribchester. The exports of the neighbouring districts must have been carried to Ribchester, have been lodged in the warehouses of the town, and have been sent in boats to the vessels in the harbour. And the imports for the neighbouring districts must have been unshipped in the harbour, have been sent in boats up to Ribchester, and have been dispersed from it over the country.

¹ Pliny lib. vii. c. 56. — ² Herodotus p. 254, Wesselingius. — The testimony of Herodotus carries the Phœnician arrival up to 440 or 450. And the progress of population in Britain and in Ireland, as it has been already and will hereafter be described (b. I. ch. xii. f. 4.), forbids it to be carried beyond the year 500. — ³ Richard.

—³ Richard p. 50.—⁴ Pliny lib. vii. c. 56.—⁵ Strabo p. 265.—
⁶ Pliny lib. vii. c. 56.—⁷ Solinus c. 22. What this author has
said concerning the island Richard has strangely applied to the
Silures of Wales, deceived by the likeness of the name, p. 21.—
⁸ Borlase's Scilly Islands p. 53, 58, 59, 62, 63, and 85.—⁹ Hero-
dotus p. 254. and Strabo p. 265.—¹⁰ Strabo ibid.—¹¹ Polybius,
who lived about 180 years before Christ, p. 290 and 291. Amstel.
1670.—¹² Strabo p. 305.—¹³ Ch. iii. f. 3.—¹⁴ Diodorus p. 347.—
¹⁵ Bede's Hist. lib. i. c. 3. and lib. iv. c. 16, and Diodorus ibid.
—¹⁶ Camden c. 890, 467, 411, 211, 237, 199, 205, &c.—¹⁷ Bor-
lase p. 88.—¹⁸ Camden c. 47. and 757.—¹⁹ Richard p. 17. and
Solinus c. 22.—²⁰ Itin. Curios. p. 5, 11, and 15.—²¹ Itin. Cur. p.
119, Camden c. 468, and Mona p. 14 and 115. There is also a
large plain on the edge of the sea near Hyll-lake in Cheshire,
which is equally called Mels or Meals, where General Schomberg
encamped his army before it was embarked for the reduction of
Ireland in the reign of King William (Leigh's N. Hist. b. I.
p. 29.)—²² Strabo p. 265. and Cæsar p. 88.—²³ Diodorus p. 347.
—²⁴ Mela lib. iii. c. 6.—²⁵ Strabo p. 265, 305, and 307.—²⁶ Ta-
citus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 33.—²⁷ Tacitus ibid., Antoninus's Iter 3
and 4. and Richard's Iter 15, Notitia, Richard Iter 15, and Pto-
lemy.—²⁸ Ptolemy and Richard p. 27.—²⁹ Antoninus and Richard
ibid., Richard p. 27. and 18, and Iter 15.—³⁰ Pliny lib. xii. c. 8.
—³¹ Solinus c. 22.—³² Martial lib. Spect. Ep. 7. and lib. xiv. E.
99, Camden p. 194, Juvenal Sat. 4, and Camden p. 2.—³³ Gra-
tius p. 26.—³⁴ Camden p. 2.

III.

THESE were the multiplied advantages which our British
ancestors received from the settlement of the Romans among
them. The mechanical arts that had been previously pursued
in the county were considerably improved. And arts previously
unknown

unknown were brought into it. The varied treasures of our soil were now first discovered or were better collected. Our societies were combined into cities, our manners were refined into politeness, and our minds were enlightened with learning. And agriculture manufactories and commerce were introduced among the natives of Lancashire and of Manchester.

These were very considerable advantages resulting to the county. But they were attended by another which was far superior to them all, and in comparison of which all these united together must absolutely sink into nothing. This was that great that momentous event, the introduction of Christianity among the Siftuntii. Beneath the government of the Romans, and speeded by the communication which their empire had opened betwixt Judæa and Britain, was Christianity introduced among the natives of the north. Beneath that government and speeded by that communication did this Sun of Righteousness arise upon the benighted inhabitants of Lancashire. The religion of an atoning Jesus was now proclaimed in the streets of Manchester. The religion of an accepting Jehovah was now proposed to the inhabitants of Mancunium. And they were called upon to turn away from that deep night of ignorance, and to shake off those heavy chains of depravity, in which they had unhappily continued from their first settlement among the woods and mosses of this district.

When by the dread sin of our great representative in paradise corruption was first admitted into the moral world, ignorance was equally admitted with it into the intellectual. And as corruption proceeded in her work, gradually tainting the principles of the moral life, ignorance followed regularly behind, and as gradually clouded the powers of the moral discernment. In this state of the human constitution, the heart fuming up to the head, and viciousness in the one diffusing darkness over the other, the original religion of man must soon have been coloured with folly. The mind, chained down to sensitive gratifications and brooding perpetually over sensitive ideas, must soon begin to lose the remains of its native elasticity of spirit in the consideration

of religion, and all its religious ideas must have begun to grow bodily and sensitive. The soul of the generality could no longer rise of itself to the contemplation of the spiritual world with which it was so intimately connected, and to the adoration of the spiritual Lord to whom it was so immediately subjected. It required some material representation, some substituted and imaginary resemblance, to be planted before the eye, in order to assist its ideas and to call out its devotions. Hence the spreading tree was selected and the lofty pillar was raised as an emblem of God and an object in prayer. And the dread Majesty of heaven and earth was regularly worshiped through the medium of the one or the other.

Such probably was the first introduction of images into the worship of the Heathens! Such certainly was the first introduction of images into the worship of Christians since! And associated vice and folly must soon have molded religion into a more corporeal system. Accustomed to sensible objects in devotion and weakened in her faculties by sin, the mind must soon have lost all the spiritual ideas of worship and have retained only the exterior and the bodily. Such we have since seen to have been unhappily the case among the Christians of the Roman church, in a less vitiated state of the human mind and under the advantage of a greater illumination. Among the gross intellects of the generality, the worship in both soon ceased to be directed to God, and rested absolutely and entirely in the image of him.

Thus in all probability was the adoration of the pillar and the tree introduced at first into the world. And the Britons adopted the idolatry. They worshiped the flourishing oak. They adored the massy column.

Matter being once made universally the object of prayer, the mind would naturally wander over the creation, and select such parts of it as appeared most splendid and important. The sun and the moon therefore would first engage her attention, and for the same reason, appear to have been more the general objects of worship than any other parts of our material system. The plan-

nets, the elements, mountains, rivers, and rocks, imaginary intelligences, and departed spirits, would next rise in succession to the world the senseless deities of abused reason. And all of these probably, and most of these certainly, were the national divinities of Britain.

Amid these wild wanderings of disordered religion, the two original institutions of God, priests and sacrifices, and the three original doctrines of a superintending Providence, of the world's final destruction, and of the soul's continuance in a future period of existence, were all carefully retained by the Britons. The great incident of the fall must have originally occasioned the institutions. And the great incident of the fall must still have been pointed out by the observancies. If the Deity had not known man to have fallen from his original perfection, if heathenism had not believed a taint of corruption to have stained his original purity, the former could not possibly have enjoined and the latter could not possibly have retained these particular observancies at all. The appointment of interceding ministers and the institution of conciliating sacrifices must certainly have been made on account of, and must as certainly have pointed out in their observance, some fixed but erazeable principle of impurity in man and some permanent but appeasable principle of anger in God. And these were retained by all the Heathens in general. But the doctrines of a Providence, the soul's immortality, and the world's destruction, were almost confined to the Britons in particular. They remained among them the peculiar incentives to moral actions. In that vitiated tone of the human mind however the united force of all these was very weak. The doctrine of the soul's immortality had the abusive notion of transmigration engrafted upon it. The priests were polluted with human sacrifices. And, as I have shewed before, the people were guilty of the grossest impurities and the most abominable mixtures.

There was something however in the Druidical species of heathenism that was peculiarly calculated to arrest the attention and to impress the mind. The rudely majestic cincture of stones

in their temples, the huge enormous Cromlech, the massy tremendous Logan, the great conical Carnedd, and the magnificent amphitheater of woods, all must have very strongly laid hold upon that religious thoughtfulness of soul which has been ever so natural to man amid all the wrecks of humanity, the monument of his former perfection.

In this state of the Sittuntian religion the Romans entered the country. Their religion was fully as wild a combination of human vice and human folly, more splendid and less cruel, yet less retaining the illustrious doctrines of God's superintendence, the eternity of the soul, and the transitoriness of matter, and less adapted to touch the religious string of the heart. But the Britons, on their adoption of the Roman manners, must have naturally adopted the Roman Theology, and must as readily have classed the Roman with the British deities as the Romans incorporated the British with their own^s. This strange conduct of exchanging divinities, so common to them and to all the other heathens, was plainly the natural result of a conscious want of satisfaction in a right worship, and a mis-directed desire of supplying the want of the one by multiplying the objects of the other. This strange conduct however must have been made subservient to the more ready introduction of both within the pale of the Christian religion. Both must in consequence of it have become less addicted to either. The Britons half-romanized and the Romans half-britonized in their idolatry must necessarily have lost all that attachment to their national religion which is merely the servant of prejudice, and which is generally the strongest barrier against a conversion.

Under the government of the Druids, the learning of the island consisted in the knowledge of astronomy geometry geography metaphysics botany and mechanics^s. And with these the Britons seem to have acquired a competent degree of acquaintance. In mechanics they were particularly learned, as the great temples of Abury and Stonehenge and the various Cromlechs and Logans in the kingdom sufficiently testify. With the mere tackle of leathern thongs they raised such enormous loads
as

as 'would strain the stoutest tackle of the present times. And all this learning was confined entirely to the Druids'. But, upon the arrival of the Romans among us, the Roman learning was carefully cultivated and successfully studied by the Britons¹⁰. This must have greatly affected the dignity of the Druids and have considerably wounded the authority of Druidism. This must have particularly taken away all that reverence for the former which ignorance will ever render to knowledge.

But the introduction of the Roman manners in general and the construction of Roman-British cities in particular directly broke in upon, and must have gradually destroyed, the whole wild superstructure of Druidism itself. The religion of the conquered Britons began early to yield to the religion of the victorious Romans. Even as early as the first century, the Britons of the north deserted the leading principles of the British religion in the form and the site of their temples. The original temples of the island were all raised in the depth of woods, were all constructed with great rude obelisks of stone, and were all absolutely open to the sky above. Such we see on the plains of Sarum, on the edge of Rollright-heath, in Cornwall, and in Scotland. But essential as such a form and situation must necessarily have been supposed to religion in any country that had immemorially retained them, the Britons of the north deserted them before the reign of Trajan. They constructed their temples of hewn stones. They erected their temples in towns. And they covered their temples with roofs¹¹.

Thus early did Druidism decline in the island, not rooted up, as has been universally supposed, by the violence of a proscription, but undermined by the progress of Roman learning and overborne by the irruption of Roman manners. And in this state of the national religion Christianity was brought into Britain. This state had happily prepared the Britons for a more favourable attention to it. And it was a religion that drew aside the thick curtain of heathen ignorance, and laid open to the view the genuine nature of God, the genuine nature of man, and the duties and rewards resulting from both. It placed a true and absolute

solate Divinity at the head of the creation, eternal in duration, unlimited in power, and unconfined by space, an Intelligence unerringly wise and unweariedly provident, and a Will infinitely just, unspeakably kind, and inconceivably pure. It represented man to have been once exactly fitted to his sphere of action, all moral harmony within, all natural order without, the central point of this lower creation, and a probationer for an happy eternity in an higher. It then reversed the glass, and shewed him no longer moving in the fair orbit of duty and receiving light and warmth from the sun-beams of Divinity, but voluntarily stooping to sin and necessarily subjected to wretchedness; his body ravaged by diseases, his understanding veiled in darkness, and the little empire of his passions and appetites all risen in rebellion against the sovereignty of his reason. It found his mind perplexed with doubts and his soul distracted with fears, conscious of weaknesses that required the assistance of some kind intercession, sensible of guilt that needed the aid of some friendly atonement, but vainly casting a wishful eye for the one and the other through all the compass of created nature, sinking therefore in melancholy under the weight of sin, and shuddering with horror at the world unknown. And it displayed this kind interceder, it pointed out this friendly atoner, to the eye of despairing man; One fully qualified to mediate from the purity of his will, One absolutely enabled to atone from the dignity of his nature; a man interceding for the ruined manhood, a God appeasing the offended Godhead; a Friend descending from the Throne of Heaven, a Saviour conducting us to the happiness of it. Such a system of religion, sanctioned as it was by precedent prophecies and authenticated by accompanying miracles, must carry conviction of its divinity to the soul, must melt even the obstinacy of prejudice, and must proselyte even the profligacy of guilt.

This the genuine religion of our nature, which echoes the sentiments of every seriously feeling heart and reflects the ideas of every seriously thinking mind, was introduced into Britain as early as the period of the apostles, and some little time before the

the insurrection of Boadicea in 61 ". And it was favourably received. It was embraced by many. It was persecuted by none ". The Britons the Romans listened to the voice of revelation, and were incorporated into the church of God. And about the middle of the second century it must have reached the confines of Lancashire ". The genius of Sistruntian idolatry and the demon of Sistruntian impurity fled before it; and the sons and daughters of Mancunium commenced the disciples of Christ. Thus was the only religion that could administer real comfort to the wildly wandering soul of man first brought into the parish of Manchester. There has it ever continued since, exalting the intellect and refining the passions, the parent of many a genuine saint. And there may it ever continue, the enlivening ray of our reason, the purifying principle of our conduct, till creation shall sink in the final flame and probation be succeeded by the final allotment.

' M. Tyrtius Dissert. xxxviii. p. 401. Cambridge.—' Gildas c. 2, Lucan. lib. iii. lin. 412, Borlase's Cornwall b. iii. c. 2, and Gale's Antoninus p. 16, 17 and 39.—' Gildas c. 2, Borlase c. 16, b. ii, Caesar p. 121 and Tacitus Agric. V. c. 11, and Ware (Harris) p. 122. And the numerous circles of stones that remain in the island, the well-known temples of the Britons, were assuredly fanes in honour of the sun. We have a Roman-British inscription Appollini Granno (Horsley p. 206), Grannus being the Irish word Grian or the sun (Crit. Diff. p. 314). And a large heath in Scotland betwixt Badenock and Strath-spey and on the banks of the Spey, having many of those circles upon it, is called Slia-grhanuas or the heath of the sun to this day (Crit. Diff. p. 314).—' Strabo, p. 302, A. Marcellinus lib. xv. c. 9, Mela lib. iii. c. 2, Caesar p. 120, and Agric. V. c. 11.—' Caesar p. 120.—' Ibid.—' C. x. f. v.—' Horsley, Apollo Grannu. p. 206, Belatucadro Westm. N°. 3 and Cumberland 31, Cocidi Cumb. 17, Retloceniz Cumb. 69, and Matuno, Mogonti. Vitiri, Tanaro, and others.—' Caesar, p. 120, Mela lib. iii. c. 21, Pliny

Pliny lib. xvi. c. 44, lib. xxv. c. 9, and lib. xxiv. c. 11; and Stukeley's Stonehenge.—"Agric. V. c. 21.—"Ibid.—"Eusebius Dem. Evang. l. iii. c. 7; Clemens Romanus Ep. 1. l. 5; and Gildas c. 5 and 6 (Interca)—"Gildas c. 7 and 8.—"Tertullian adv. Jud. tom. 1. p. 212, Lutetiae, 1634. Writing about the year 200, he says that many even of the Caledonians were then Christians—*loca—Romanis inaccessa—Christo subdita.*

IV.

A RELIGION like the Christian, once firmly footed in the island, was certain to gain speedily upon the remaining heathens of it. And though it combated the native tendencies of the animal passions and proselyted only by an appeal to the rational, it actually gained very speedily upon them. Early in the third century the Roman Britons were generally settled in the profession of the Christian faith. Idolatry indeed was still the national religion both of Romans and of Britons. But Christian temples were publickly opened in the island, and the Christian faith encountered scarcely any of that opposition within it which it regularly met upon the continent. It suffered no persecution at all till the conclusion nearly of the third century. And this opposition was succeeded by a great encouragement from the worthy Constantius and by an open profession from the glorious Constantine. Then the standard of Christianity was displayed victorious over Roman Britain. Then the ruined churches were repaired and new temples were constructed. And then the great rites in the oecconomy of Christian worship were universally celebrated with devotion, the principal transactions in the history of the Christian redemption were formally commemorated with gratitude, and the church of Britain was established in piety and in peace immediately after the commencement of the fourth century.

When the Christians were first formed into a society, they must necessarily have been subjected to a regimen. They could not

not have been left by the Divinity to examine the various models of government and to settle the best for themselves. He who molded the frame and therefore knew the springs of the human heart would never have referred a point to the determination of man, which from the vanity of mere speculation and the necessary want of sufficient experience has always been so variously considered by man, which from the greatness of its object engages most strongly the two ruling passions of the soul, pride and selfishness, and which for both reasons must certainly have embroiled the church with the wildest dissensions, and have assuredly torn up the infant establishment from its base. The God of wisdom could not thus have instituted his church in folly. As a society, as a society modelled in wisdom and founded on peace, the individuals of it must certainly have been retained in their proper spheres by a concentrating principle of obedience in some and by a regulating power of government in others. But the Christian was not modelled merely like a common society. It had this peculiarity in the frame and texture of its constitution, that it could not have begun to exist at all without a previously instituted platform of government. It began to exist at first by the baptismal administration of the apostles. And the apostolical power of introducing profelytes into it must have necessarily included in its idea a power of government over the profelytes afterwards. The first Christians were actually admitted into the pale by apostolical ministration. The first Christians were actually subject in the pale to apostolical government.

The mode of polity that was first delivered to the apostles for the present government of the church must have been the same that was continued over the church in the days of the apostles. The mode of polity that was either then or afterwards appointed by Christ for the regimen of his church in all ages must have been the same that was carried with Christianity into all nations and has continued with Christianity in all ages. And both were indubitably the monarchical or episcopal. This was the model of ecclesiastical polity that was

observed in the age of the apostles'. This was the model of ecclesiastical polity that was observed in all the Christian nations of the world. No other ever made its appearance in the church till the year 1541. And this was the model of ecclesiastical polity that was particularly erected in Britain. The best platform of government in itself, it appears to have been early introduced into the island. And the Roman conquests among us were regularly partitioned into dioceses as early at least as the year 314'.

The first bishopricks of the church would naturally be commensurate with the provinces of the state. The first sees of the bishops would naturally be settled at the capitals of the provinces. In consequence of the former, the bishopricks assumed the general denominations of Provinces and Dioceses. In consequence of the latter, the bishopricks adopted the particular appellations of the Provincial Capitals. The first dioceses in Britain therefore must have been the same as the provinces of the Romans, and must have been, like them, only four in number within the compass of the present England and Wales'. And three of these provincial bishops appear as subscribers to the Council of Arles in 314; Eborius Episcopus, de Civitate Eboracensi, Provinciâ Britannâ; Restitutus Episcopus, de Civitate Londinensi, Provinciâ supra-scriptâ; and Adelphius Episcopus, de Civitate Colonia Londinensium'. These were all of them indisputably bishops in Britain. And two of these were evidently the bishops of the provinces Maxima and Flavia. Eborius had his seat at York, the metropolis of our Maxima. And Restitutus had his residence at London, a city probably superior in grandeur to all the other cities of Flavia and the capital of them and of the province'.

But where shall we fix the seat of Adelphius? Where shall we find the site of his Colonia Londinensium? The enquiry has long engaged the busy efforts of conjectural criticism. But the difficulty is not yet removed. Camulodunum, Iſca Silurum, and Lindum, have all three been supposed by different critics to be the particular residence of Adelphius'. The interior condition

dition of Roman Britain was very imperfectly known to the critics, and a mere community of nature or the smallest similarity of name was therefore naturally thought a sufficient reason for such a supposition. About sixty years ago the MSS. of Ravennas being found to exhibit the kindred appellation of Colonia Lindum, and both these reasons being united together, the hint was eagerly caught by the antiquarians, and the see of Adelphius has ever since been authoritatively fixed at Lincoln⁹. But the Lindum Colonia of Ravennas and of Richard is certainly not the Colonia Londinensium of the Council. No authority of manuscripts permits us with these critics to change Londinensium into Lindinensium. No proprieties of language allow us with these critics to deduce either Londinensium or Lindinensium from Lindum¹⁰. And, if both the one and the other could be permitted, Lincoln could not possibly be the see of a bishoprick, being actually in the same province and consequently in the same diocese with London.

The genuine name is Civitas Colonia Londinensium. And we have no right to suppose a corruption merely because we meet with a difficulty. The site of the colony must certainly be sought in a region of Britain remote from Lincolnshire and in a province or diocese distinct from Flavia. And a few observations will actually lead us to it.

The second Augustan legion, which was stationed at Caerleon in Monmouthshire, was equally stationed at London. The head-quarters of the legion, once settled at Caerleon, were afterwards transferred to London. Hence in the last century a sepulchral inscription was discovered upon the declivity of Ludgate-hill addressed to the memory of one of these legionaries¹¹. And hence Augusta, the legionary name of Caerleon at first, became early in the fourth century the legionary appellation of London¹². At London the head-quarters of the legion continued for some time¹³. And while the two or three principal cohorts that must have composed the colony continued stationary at it, they might easily acquire the appellation of Londinenses. The legionaries might as naturally receive the title of Londi-

nenses as London obtain the title of Legio Augusta. And the Roman troops in general pretty frequently received appellations from the names of their quarters, six or seven legions of Roman citizens (as I have previously shown¹¹) being denominated from the places of their residence, and a body of Nervii stationed at Dictis being called Dictenses, another body lodged at Longovicus being named Longovicarii, and the garrisons of Petriana and Derventio assuming the titles of Ala Petriana and Derventionenses¹². Thus denominated, the principal cohorts were afterwards removed from London to Rhutupæ¹³. And the new colony might properly obtain and would naturally receive the title of Colonia Londinensium. Rhutupæ was certainly the only colony in the kingdom that could possibly have received this appellation at all. Rhutupæ was certainly a colony of the second legion and the metropolis of the province. And Rhutupæ appears certainly in the earliest period of the Saxons to have actually been distinguished among them by the very same denomination of London, London Port, and Lundenwic¹⁴.

Thus were three bishops appointed as early as the year 314 over the three provinces of Britannia Prima, Flavia, and our own Maxima. Thus did three bishops fix their residence as early as the year 314 at the three capitals of the provinces, Rhutupæ, Londinium, and our own Eboracum. The bishop of Britannia Secunda, whose see was at Caerleon the Roman metropolis of Wales, was either absent from the council of Arles or subscribed not to the decrees of the bishops¹⁵. And the county of Lancaster in general and the parish of Manchester in particular were now subject equally to the civil authority and to the ecclesiastical supremacy of York.

Thus was Episcopacy established at first coeval with Christianity in Britain. Thus did Episcopacy flourish afterwards co-equal with Christianity in the island. And Episcopacy and Christianity have continued inseparably united among us to the present moment.

"Origen on Ezek. tom. iv.—Britannia—consensit, and Gildas c. 7 and 8.—² Gildas c. 7 and 8.—³ Ignatius's Epist. ad Smyr-næos f. 8. and ad Polycarpum f. 8 &c. (Russell.)—⁴ Sirmondus's Concilia Gallica Lutetiæ 1629, tom. I. p. 9.—⁵ Richard p. 15 —⁶ Sirmondus tom. I. p. 9.—⁷ Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 33.—⁸ Usher, Selden, Spelman, Stillingfleet, &c.—⁹ Gale's Antoninus, Baxter, Carte, &c.—¹⁰ Bede calls the region Lindisfjs and the town Lindo-colina lib. ii. c. 16.—¹¹ Wren's Parentalia p. 265.—¹² Marcellinus lib. xxvii. c. 8. Lundinium vetus oppidum quod Augustam posteritas appellavit.—¹³ Ch. vi. c. 4.—¹⁴ Notitia.—¹⁵ Ibid.—¹⁶ Somner's R. Forts in Kent p. 9 &c.—¹⁷ Richard p. 22. and Carte p. 214. a Note. And the bishop of Valentia was equally absent, whose see was at Leuconophibia or Whiteru in Galloway; a see being settled there in the times of the Britons, and Nynias a Briton being bishop of it multo tempore before 565, Bede lib. iii. c. 4.

The story of king Lucius, which has been so greatly canvassed by our historical critics, can be true only in the manner in which it is represented by Mr. Carte vol. I. p. 137. And I have already evinced that there were kings in Britain beneath the Roman government. But the two coins impressed with a cross and the letters LVC, first mentioned by archbishop Usher and more or less depended upon by all, must certainly be spurious. Usher's manner of mentioning them renders the fact infinitely precarious. He had seen two coins, he says, which were marked with the sign of the cross and *Literis obscurioribus quæ LVC denotare videbantur* (p. 22, 1687). And no British king, as I have already shewn from Gildas, was allowed to mint money after the Roman conquest:

C H A P. XII.

I.

IN the two military municipies and the seven military colonies which were planted by the Romans in the island, the lands assigned to the legionaries must have regularly descended to their heirs. This the nature of such assignments necessarily requires. This the continuance of the same legions in the same municipies and colonies for three or four centuries together, which was the case particularly with the sixth, very evidently demonstrates. Thus inherited, the lands were undoubtedly military feuds in themselves, and were undoubtedly enjoyed by military tenures from the emperor. And the male descendants from the original legionaries must have been all legionaries by birth, at the military age must have all engaged by turns in the regular duties of the garrison at home, and must all by turns have been draughted out for the occasional duties of the island abroad.

In the revolution of three or four centuries the males of the municipies and colonies must have been considerably multiplied, and the number of legionaries in each of them have been considerably augmented. In the revolution of three or four centuries the original three or four thousand perhaps of each garrison, merely by the natural effect of a successive propagation, and only by a single duplication of the whole in each successive generation, must regularly have dilated themselves into a very considerable number. Each of the nine cities must at least have decupled the full amount of its original inhabitants in that long period

period of time; and the native Romans of the island must have been nearly half a million of men at the conclusion of it. And history remarkably coincides with the reasoning, actually mentioning the Roman inhabitants of the island as a distinct nation of themselves, and considering them equally with the populous nations of the Britons the Angles the Picts and the Scots within it'.

In this gradual multiplication of the Roman legionaries, and in that gradual increase of the Roman power which must have been the natural result of it, the necessity of maintaining so many troops in the island must have been regularly taken away. And about the close of the third or the commencement of the fourth century several of the legions must have been nearly superfluous in Britain. Hence we find the twentieth Valerian Victorious the tenth Antonian Augustan and the seventh Twin Claudian to have been recalled from the island before the fifth century'. And hence we find the first of them in particular to have not been recalled nearly till the middle of the fourth century, till some time after the date of Antonine's Itinerary and the construction of the famous Constantinople'. Having very large bodies of native legionaries in her municipalities and colonies, the island was sufficiently able to dismiss three of her five legions, and was sufficiently defended against her enemies by the remaining two.

The full legionary complement of men must have been draughted out of the military citizens that respectively belonged to each of the three legions, must have marched away under the legionary standard, and must have embarked with their wives and children for the continent. The rest remained behind. And these, together with the military citizens that were afterwards left by the two other legions upon the final departure of all, must have necessarily formed a very considerable figure in the island, the amount of their dispersed numbers entitling them to the collective appellation of a nation, and the Romans being denominated as one of the five tribes that divided the island betwixt them. Thus Bede declares the Divinity to

have been worshiped among us in the languages of five different nations, the Angles, the Britons, the Picts, the Scots, and the Latins. Thus the Saxon Chronicle mentions five *geðeope* or nations to have inhabited Britain, the Angles, the Britons, the Picts, the Scots, and the *Boc-ledene*¹. And what decisively evinces the *Boc-ledene* and the Latini of these authors to be actually and absolutely the original Romans, they both immediately after the mention of these several nations endeavour to ascertain the periods of their primary introduction into Britain; and referring the first advent of the Britons the Picts and the Scots to certain dark and successive æras, they fix the first arrival of the Angles in the time of Hengist, and they settle the first arrival of the Latins in the days of Cæsar¹.

In this interior condition of the island, Mancunium and the *Sistuntii* enjoyed in peace all the various advantages of the Roman residence among them, employed in the prosecution of commerce, engaged in the profession of Christianity, and blest equally in the feeling of present and in the prospect of future happiness. But alas! the period was now hastily approaching when the general happiness of the island was to cease. War was now ready to enter the five provinces of Roman Britain, to deform the fair scenes of Roman cultivation and British refinement, to ravage her rich vallies, and to deface her gay cities. Misery was now ready to be let loose upon the five dioceses of Roman Britain, to distinguish by the test of sufferings the mere votary of the establishment from the cordial embracer of the religion, to give the genuine Christian the honourable privilege of retaining his faith under the weight of discouragement and the establishment of idolatry, and to call out all those stronger graces of the soul which shoot active through the breast in the trying period of calamity, and which more particularly exalt the sentiment invigorate the mind and dignify the man.

The Caledonians the Saxons the Scots were all preparing to descend upon Roman Britain, united by the bond of interest and impelled by the hope of conquest. This was the sad commencement of an æra of sorrows to her. And this it is requisite

quisite to explain at large, to remove the thick cloud which ignorance has raised before the history, to clear away the wild whimsies which folly has incorporated with the facts, and to give a brief authentic detail of the whole. In these momentous particulars the citizens of Mancunium were very deeply interested. These deprived them of their friendly protectors in the adjoining castrum of the Castle-field. These broke for ever the chain of connection that had so long and so happily subsisted between Mancunium and Rome. And these brought the ravages of war into our borders, introduced the natives of North-Germany into our parish, and even planted a colony of barbarians from the Elbe in our streets.

¹ Bede's Hist. c. i. l. 1, and Sax. Chron. p. 1.—² Notitia.—³ Antonini Itinerarium p. 9. Bertius's edit. & Iter Brit. 1, 2, and 12.—⁴ Bede's Hist. l. i. c. 1.—⁵ Sax. Chron. p. 1.—⁶ Bede l. i. c. 1-15, and Sax. Chron. p. 1-11.

II.

THE British nations beyond the Vallum of Antoninus were sixteen in number. Of these some had once been entirely reduced by the Romans. Of these others had ever remained independent of them.

¹ The former consisted of six tribes and had about twenty stations among them². The Horestii lived immediately beyond the wall, in Sterling and in Fife, in the South-eastern parts of Strathern and Menteith, and in that small portion of Perth which is to the south of the Tay; being bounded by the Tay on the north, and having the towns of Alauna, Lindum, and Victoria in their dominions. Before the coming of the Romans the Horestii had been attacked and subdued by the Dam-

nii; and their towns are therefore ascribed to the Damnii by Ptolemy. But, after that coming and the erection of the forts or the wall, the Horestii were entirely separated from the Damnii, became a part of the new province Vespasiana, and were subjected to the new capital Victoria. The Vecturones resided in the rest of Perth, in all Gawry, Angus, and Merns, and in the narrow region of Mar which is to the south of the Dee; having the towns or stations Orrea, Ad Hiernam, Ad Tavum, Ad Eficam, and Ad Tinam', and acknowledging the first of them for their capital. The Taixali lived beyond the Dee, in the rest of Mar and in Buchan, owning Devana or Old Aberdeen in the former for their metropolis, and giving their own name to Buchan Ness or Kinnaid's Head upon the margin of their shore. Adjoining to these on the West along the retreating line of the coast, and separated from them by an arm of the Grampian hills about the North-western limits of Buchan, the Vacomagi possessed the regions of Bamff, Murray, Inverness to the town of Inverness, nearly the whole of Badenock and Argyle, and the small part of Broadalbin that lies to the North of the Tay; having the towns of Tueffis, Rothes upon the Spey in Murray, Banatia or Bane-castle, Varis, Far upon Nairne river, and Ptorotone or Inverness, in the district of Inverness, Ad Tueffim or Ruthvan upon the Spey in Badenock, and Tamea or Brumchester in Athol'. To the South of the Vacomagi were the Damnii Albani, a tribe totally omitted by Ptolemy and therefore certainly subjected to another, a tribe actually subjected to their neighbours the Damnii, receiving the former half of their appellation from their conquerors and the latter from the Alben or heights among which they were situated, and considered as consisting of two gentes or tribes, which inhabited the small part of Athol and Broadalbin that is to the south of the Tay, and the remainder of Strathern and Menteith'. And, to the South of these, the Attacotti resided in Lenox', extending only along the side of the Cluyd and a part of the Roman Vallum, and having Al-cluith or Balclutha', the town upon the Cluid, Dun-Britton or Dun-Barton, the town of the Britons, for their capital. Such were the once subjected Britons of the North, formed into

the

the province of Vespasiāna; and, owning Ptorotone for their provincial capital^s.

^s The unconquered Britons consisted of ten tribes, and inhabited the large remainder of Scotland. To the south¹⁰ of Murray Frith were placed the Proper Caledonians, possessing the interior regions of Inverness, the western of Badenock and Broadalbin, the eastern of Lochaber, and the north-eastern of Lorn, reaching in a long line across the island from the Frith of Murray in the North-East to the head of the Sinus Lelamnonius, Lelamnonius, Lelanus, or Loch Fyn, in the South-West¹¹, and having^s all the western parts of their country quite covered over with the Caledonian forest¹². But along the eastern coast of the island, and to the north of these and of Murray Frith¹³, the Cantæ enjoyed all the eastern parts of Ross, having the river Loxa or the Frith of Cromarty passing through the center of their possessions, the promontory Penoxullum, Uxel Pen, or the High Head, the Lofty Bank of Ptolemy, and the present Tarbeath Ness, on one side of them, and the river Abona, or the Frith of Dornock to the North of them. Beyond the Frith were the Logi or the maritime people, inhabiting the sea-coast of Sutherland, and reaching to the river Ila or Ale in Caithness. And the Carnabii inhabited the rest of Caithness, being the most north-easterly of all the Britons, and having the two promontories of Viruedrum and Berubium¹⁴, the Dungsbay and the Ness Heads, to the East and North-East of them. To the West of these were the Catini, spreading along the whole sea-coast of Strathnaver to the west; as to the south of the Catini, in the interior districts of Strathnaver and Sutherland, and adjoining on the East to the Logi¹⁵, were the Mertæ. The Catini had been subdued by the Carnabii, who thereby extended their dominions along all the northern shore of the island from the river Ila on the South-East to the promontory Tarvidum, Orcas, or Fair Head on the North-West¹⁶, and to the river Nabæus or Loch Assynt beyond it on the South-West. To the South of the Nabæus, the Carnonacæ extended along the shore of Ross, having the Promontorium Ebudum or the headland of Row Stòir Assynt on one side of their country and the Vols. Sinus or Loch Breyn

to the south of it. Bounded by Loch Breyn on the north and by the river Itys on the south, a river placed by Ptolemy two degrees to the south of the Volias Sinus and probably the Sheyl in Invernesshire, were the Cerones; as the Creones were limited by the Itys on the north and the river Longus or Loch Long on the south, a river placed by Ptolemy three or four degrees to the south of the Itys " : these two nations possessing all the remainder of Ross, of Inverness, of Lochaber, and of Lorn, and the whole of Argyle ". And the Epidii inhabited the little residue of Scotland, the narrow chersonesus that is formed by the ocean on the west and Loch Fyn on the east, which contains Cantire and Knapdale, and which terminates in the Epidium Promontorium or the Mull of Cantire ".

All these in the days of Agricola were united together under one monarch and combined into one monarchy ". This monarch was a Pendragon or dictator, one king exalted into a pre-eminence over the rest upon the alarming invasion of the country by Agricola, and, like the Pendragons that had been previously created in the south, invested with a military authority over them. The Pendragonship must certainly have been instituted at first among the Southern Britons upon the first invasion or the subsequent encroachments of their first common enemies, the Belgæ, and was therefore first instituted in all probability after Divitiacus had obtained the command of all Belgic Britain ". The united Belgæ appear to have gained very considerable advantages over the disunited Britons ". The Cantii, who had previously seized the south of Middlesex and the fortress of London ", and who, as Novantes or new-comers, in Middlesex, had their fortress distinguished by the appellation of Tre-Novantium or the abode of the Novantes ", and afterwards received or assumed the discriminating title of Trinobantes, at that period in all probability enlarged their dominions, as I have formerly shewn their possessions to have been actually extended, over all Middlesex and all Essex. The Regni, who were previously confined, I suppose, to the county of Sussex, now pretty certainly obtained their dominions in Surry, and (as appears from the
name

name of their town, Novio-magus") there acquired the appellation of Novien or strangers. And it was at this period most probably that the Damnonii subdued the Carnabii of West-Cornwall and the Cimbri of North-Cornwall and South-Somersetshire, and that the Proper Belgæ conquered the Segontiaci in the contiguous parts of Hampshire and Berkshire, and reduced the Hædui in the north of Somersetshire the north-west of Wiltshire and the south-west of Gloucestershire. Such successes must have greatly alarmed the native Britons, and must have strongly solicited them to copy the beneficial practice of their enemies, and to unite, like them, under one common governour. And accordingly we soon find all the southerly tribes combined together under one head, and jointly prosecuting the war against the Belgæ". This head was the famous Cassi-vellaunus or Cassibellinus", the Belin or king of the Cassii". He was created the Pendragon or the head of the kings, the whole military authority over the combined tribes was committed to him, and under his conduct the war was carried on with vigour". The Cassii recovered all the country which had been seized by the Trinobantes, and which must pretty certainly have been previously taken away from themselves, the whole tribe of the Trinobantes being reduced into subjection". And the Bibroces recovered from the Regni what as certainly had been their own before, the county of Surry, even pursued the Regni into Suffex, and absolutely subdued the kingdom". Such successes would strongly recommend the new model of government to the Britons. And at the second and more formal descent of Cæsar upon the island both the Belgæ and the Britons very prudently united together for their common safety, and the Pendragon of the latter became equally for a short period the dictator of the former". And this dignity was not merely temporary, created for the emergency and expiring with it. It was a dignity that continued for life in the possessor, and that seems even to have descended at his death to his male heir. Thus Cunobeline and Caractacus, the two successors of Cassivellaun in the monarchy of the Cassii, seem also to have been his heirs in the Pendragonship of the island.

island. This the first introduction of a mint from the Roman continent by Cunobeline, though as the king of the Cassii he was with relation to them only an inland monarch³²; this the intimate acquaintance of the Romans with his name and capital, though he lay at a distance from the southern coasts³³; and this the appellation of Cunobeline, Cuno Belin signifying the Head King; all concur to render highly probable with respect to the former. And Caractacus, the Charatic of Dio and the Caradoc of the Triades, was undoubtedly the Pendragon of the Britons, as is equally implied in the name Cara-tac, Cara-tog, or Head King³⁴, as is expressly asserted by Tacitus, and as is demonstrated by the whole tenour of his history³⁵. Thus also, as I shall afterwards shew, the same office was lineally hereditary among the Britons of Caledonia and among the Britons and the Belgæ of Iceland³⁶. Among the Caledonian Britons the dignity must have been first instituted upon the advance of the first common enemy which had hitherto attacked them, the Romans under Agricola. Then, wisely providing against the general danger by a general union, all the unconquered tribes of the island solemnly confederated together, and put themselves under the authority of Galgacus³⁷. This was the monarch of one of their tribes, superior to the rest in descent and valour³⁸, and perhaps, as Pendragon, denominated Gal-gac, Gal-cog, or the king of the Gauls. In the family of Galgacus the Pendragonship most probably remained till the middle of the second century. Then the royal house of the Creones was nominated to it, and Trenmor, Trathal, Comhal, and Fingal succeeded each other as regularly in the public command as in the private monarchy³⁹.

All these tribes were first called by the general appellation of Caledonians or Caledonian Britons⁴⁰. And this appellation was not derived, as the learned Macpherson imagines⁴¹, from the two words Cael and Don, and signifies the Gauls of the Hills. It was the denomination of the inhabitants equally in the Lowlands of the eastern coast and on the mountains of the northern and western Highlands⁴². This appellation, originally peculiar to the tribe that ranged in a long line across the island and inhabited the hills in common with

with the Ceronēs the Creonēs the Carnonacæ and others, was derived from the great forest that swept across all the western regions of their country. The woods of Britain in general and the three greatest of them in particular were distinguished among the natives by the simple denomination of Caledon or the Woods¹. Residing almost entirely within the precincts of an extensive forest, the tribe was originally denominated the Caledon-ii or the Woodlanders, and equally communicated its name to all the tribes that lay to the north of the Friths. But this communication appears not to have been made, as we have previously seen the name of one tribe imparted to another in South-Britain, by the reduction of the people in war. It was occasioned, as is most probable, and as we shall hereafter find the case equally in Ireland, merely by the superiority of the Caledonians to the rest of the tribes in extent of dominion and in greatness of power. And the other tribes of the north were as certainly inferior to the Caledonians in political dignity as they were partakers with them in their national appellation².

These about the close of the second century, when all the level regions of Sterling and the eastern coast were now no longer dislevered from Caledonia, were very naturally and occasionally distinguished by the two general appellations of Caledonians and Maiata³; the latter inhabiting the marshy plains that lay the nearest to the wall of Antoninus⁴, possessing equally without doubt the lowlands of the eastern coast⁵, and being therefore denominated the Mai Aitich or the Dwellers on the Plains⁶; and the former residing in the wild mountains behind and on one side of them⁷. Among the former, the tribes that lay along the western ocean were called from their situation Deu-caledones, the Water or Maritime Caledonians, and gave to the neighbouring sea the name of the Deucaledonian Ocean⁸. And all these were afterwards known by the one comprehensive appellation of Picts, which commenced about the close of the third century⁹, and which finally superseded the rest. This name has been invariably supposed by the critics to be derived from the Roman language¹⁰, and was equally supposed to be derived from it by the more ig-

norant even among the Romans." The word appears evidently at the first view to be as little Roman in its origin as the very same appellation of *Pictones* in Gaul, *Pict* in the singular forming *Pict-i* or *Pict-on-es* in the Plural; which is equally seen in the names of *Allo-Brig-es* or *Brig-ant-es*, *Frif-ii* or *Frif-on-es*, *Cang-i* or *Cang-an-i*, *Cen-i* or *Cen-on-es*, and a thousand others. The name was not confined at all to the Romans and Roman Britons. It was used equally by the natives themselves. The name was not peculiar to the Caledonians. It was the appellation equally of them and of the Irish. The name is therefore absolutely Celtic, and was pronounced by the Britons of Scotland and Ireland *Fict* or *Viçt*, the Caledonians calling themselves the *Fict-ied*, and the Hibernians denominating themselves the *Gathel Fict-ied*. The name is evidently derived from the British *Guith* or *Guiçt*, the divorced or separated. Hence arose the appellation of *Veçtis* or the separated region for the Isle of Wight". And as the labials *M*, *B*, *P*, *V*, and *F* are constantly substituted one for another in the British language", *Guiçt* would be variously formed into *Miçt*, *Biçt*, *Piçt*, *Viçt*, and *Fict*. Thus we have *Venta* *Icenorum* of Norfolk, *Gwent* in *Caer Gwent* the ancient *Venta Silurum*, *Wint* in *Wintchester* the *Venta Belgarum*, *Bint* in the *Bindogladia* of *Ravennas* the *Venta-Geladia* of *Richard*, and in *Vindovium* or *Bintchester*, all four exactly the same word with *Pend* or *Pent an Head*. Thus we have *Aval* an Apple, *Papyrus* *Papir* or *Pabaur*, *Populus* *Poball* or *People*, *Durobrovis* or *Duroprovis*, *Menapia* *St. David's* or *Menevia*, *Brydhain* *Frydhain* or *Prydhain* for *Britain*, and an infinite variety of others". And names like these, names signifying a separated people, were very common among the *Celtæ* in general; appear (as I have already shewed") even in the name of the island, *Britain*; appear also in the original and general appellation of all the islands around it, which were all equally denominated *Britains*; and are found in *Veçtis* and *Miçtis*, the names of one or two of these islands in particular, in the *Veçt-uriones* of Scotland, in the *Pictones* of France, and in the *Vertones* of Spain". And the name of *Fict* or *Pict* in our own country, being common to the Caledonians and

and the Irish, must have been deprived from some separation that was common to them both, and must therefore have denoted the separation of both from the tribes of the Roman Britons and the position of both without the pale of the Roman-British empire."

It is one of the most singular events in the Roman annals, and reflects a peculiar honour upon the bravery of the Britons, that in the long course of more than three centuries the Romans could never make an entire conquest of the island. This was the only country in the world in which the Romans reduced the greatest part of the natives, and yet were for ever beat off by the small remainder of them. The conquest was attempted by some of the greatest generals that were produced in the armies of Rome, was prosecuted with the greatest vigour and conduct, and yet was never accomplished. All the efforts of the Romans, however successful at first, were finally baffled by the Britons. They still lived independent in their native mountains, and looked down with pity upon the rest of their brethren, stooping to the power and adopting the manners of the Romans. When the gallant Silures had submitted to the Romans, and the equal highlands of Wales had suffered Roman stations to be planted among them; when even the hills of Athol and the mountains of Badenoch had been scaled by the Roman armies and were traversed by the Roman roads; still with a resolute obstinacy of soul did the Caledonians maintain their liberty, at last drove the enemy back to the friths, and even pursued them into the provinces.

When Agricola invaded the country, though he came recent from the conquest of Half-Britain, they opposed his advance and encountered his army. Though he came attended by a gallant fleet and at the head of a powerful army, though he gained more than one victory over them, and though he spent no less than three years in his expedition, they bravely persisted in their own defence and defeated all his attempts to reduce them". They were not, as the Britons of Valentia and Maxima seem to have been before, a number of independent tribes unconnected

by union and uninformed with vigour. They were embodied together under one common government, and their operations were actuated with one common spirit. But when Lollius entered the country, they appear to have been distracted with dissensions. The pendragonship was then vacant, and the kings contended for the honour⁶⁰. In these circumstances defeat naturally succeeded to defeat; the Romans gained greatly upon the regions of Caledonia; and, additional to their old conquest of the Horestii, the five whole tribes of the Vecturiones the Taixali the Vacomagi the Damnii Albani and the Attacotti were fully reduced by Lollius⁶¹. The fever of private ambition was extinguished by the fear of public destruction. And the monarch of the Creones, distinguished from the rest by the only success in the war, was nominated to the pendragonship⁶². His dominions extended along the coast of Lochaber Lorn and Argyle; and his capital fortress was constructed towards the upper end of the country, was entitled Selma, and was planted in the great wood of Morven⁶³. A part of Lochaber near the point of Ardnamurchie still indicates the site of the capital, retaining to the present period its antient denomination of Morvain⁶⁴. As the king of the Creones, he was called the Sovereign of Selma or the Monarch of Morven⁶⁵. As the pendragon of the Caledonians, he was called Trenmor, Teyrn or Tren Mor, the Great King, or was denominated the King of Ardden⁶⁶. Ardden was the general name of the country, and is synonymous with Caledonia. And as the dominions of Ardden extended up to the friths, and the vallum in particular⁶⁷, so they also took in the whole compass of the peninsula of Caledonia in general⁶⁸. And in all probability the new pendragon preserved the remainder of Caledonia from the Romans. They had now victoriously carried their arms to the great chain of mountains that commences near the town of Dunbarton, ranges across the western side of Athol and Badenoch, and extends beyond the Frith of Murray. And this, as the natural the long-continued barrier of the unconquered tribes of Caledonia, which it certainly was, does for twenty miles together in the regions of Badenoch and of Athol retain

retain the significant appellation of Drum Uachtur, the Ridge of the Vecturiones, or the Mountains of the Picts, to the present period⁶. Having therefore conquered all the eastern and north-eastern shore, and having successfully reduced the mountaineers of Badenoch and Athol, Lollius would certainly not have discontinued his conquests if he had found it practicable to extend them. Lollius had made a progress which none of the Romans had made before him, and must have eagerly wished to have crowned his successes and to have completed his glory by the absolute and entire subjection of the stubborn islanders. And the Caledonians afterward, burst from their mountain-barrier and attacked the Romans in their new conquests with so much vigour and perseverance, that in less than thirty years after the expedition of Lollius the Romans were entirely beaten out of them all, were dislodged even from the conquests of Agricola in the country of the Horestii, and were forced to shelter themselves behind the vallum of Antoninus⁷.

The next and the last great attempt to reduce the Caledonians was made by the Roman emperor in person, by Severus and by the whole collected power of the empire under him. The Caledonians were then subject to Fingal, the Vind-Gall or Head of the Gauls, the son of Comhal, the grandson of Trathal, and the great grandson of Trenmor, a pendragon worthy to be the antagonist of Severus, a chief worthy to be the hero of Offian⁸. Severus passed the two walls⁹, and entered the country. The Caledonians perpetually hung unseen upon his army during their march, attacked him vigorously at every advantageous turn, and frequently drew his parties into artful ambuscades¹⁰. Thus continually harrassed by a bold and watchful enemy, the Romans were reduced to considerable distress. They were obliged to put all their sick and wounded to the sword that they might not fall alive into the hands of the enemy, and actually lost no less than fifty thousand men in the expedition¹¹. And though the Britons at last ceded a considerable tract of ground to the Romans for peace, a part of the country undoubtedly that had been previously subdued by Lollius¹², all the conquered *Mæatæ* imme-

diately revolted, were immediately joined by the Caledonians, and the Roman power was "once more confined to the five provinces". The Romans re-entered the country, conducted by Caracalla and commissioned to exterminate the natives". Fingal met him in the county of Sterling and on the banks of the Carron". "The son of the King of the World, Caracul, "fled from his arms along the fields of his pride". He resigned up the contested dominions, and hastily retired to the south of the wall".

Thus unsuccessful were all the attempts of the Romans to subdue the Caledonians! Thus did the Caledonians perpetually rise more vigorous from every repeated attempt! And they had no sooner dislodged the Romans from their settlements on the north of the Wall in the year 170, but they attacked them "behind their gathered heap", "passed the Wall, cut the Romans in pieces, and ravaged the province of Valentia". And though they were finally repelled they ever persisted in their attacks, still ready to break into the province, and still eager to retaliate upon the Romans and Roman Britons all the woes which they had brought upon Caledonia". And the moment the Roman forces relinquished the island they even broke through both the walls, they even invaded both the provinces of Valentia and Maxima, and instantly began the complicated calamities of Roman Britain.

* Richard p. 30.—* Iter 9 and 10 of Richard, and Ptolemy.—* Iter 9 of Richard.—* Iter 10 of Richard.—* *Intra Tatum* (Richard).—These *Damnii*, *Albanii* (as Richard says) were *intra lacuum montiumque claustra platee recondite*.—* *Unde [a civitate Aleluith] linea ad ostium fluminis Nariis ducta terminos ostendit* [Vespasiani].—Richard p. 13.—* Richard p. 51. Bede l. i. c. 1, and Ossian vol. i. p. 120.—* Richard's map of this province is very inaccurate. The *Vesturones* or *Vepriones* are carried to the south of the Tay and into the country of the *Horrelli*, and in such a manner as if they had the *Horrelli* in subjection, the Roman

Roman invasion. But the Horestij were then actually subject to the Damnii. And as the Damnii are placed immediately to the south of the Tay, in the little portion of Broadalbin and in Strathern, the Albanii are translated to the west of Loch Fyn and into Argyleshire. And Vespasiana and the Attacotti are carried quite up to Loch Fyn. Dr. Stukeley has in some measure corrected the two first mistakes, has retained the third, and has fallen into others. The Vespasiana quæ et Thule of Richard's map he has strangely mistaken, annexing the Quæ et to Taixali, and with both forming Taixali Aquæ. And the Vacomagi he has brought to the south of the Tay.—¹ Richard p. 32.

² Richard says, ad *Occidentem Vararis*; here, and here only, copying the grand mistake of the Romans as to the position of Scotland, which has put the East for the North and the West for the South, the North for the West, and the South for the East. And instead of a course right Northerly and Southerly the Romans have given Scotland a direction full Eastern and Western. This is the case with Ptolemy in particular. And thus Strabo p. 307 places Ierne or Ireland to the north of Britain; and the Scotch writers have idly caught at the position in order to make Ierna stand for the north of Scotland (see Macpherson, vol. i. Ossian p. 5, &c.)—³ Ptolemy and Richard p. 15.—⁴ Ptolemy places the Caledonian wood *vræ*, above, or to the north, that is, to the west, of the Caledonians; and Richard in a part of their country. It was therefore in the western part of their country. And Ptolemy places the Vacomagi *vræ* or above, to the West of, the Caledonians. But this *vræ* should certainly be *vræ*, below, or to the East of, the Caledonians. And Horsley and Birtius, who both read *vræ*, both translate it as if it was *vræ*.—⁵ Ptolemy.—⁶ Ibid. Richard has confounded these two promontories and made them one and the same.—⁷ Ptolemy.—⁸ Ibid.—⁹ The lands of Erba, the country upon Loch Eryth or Erba in Lorn, were in the dominions of the Creones and the kingdome of Morven (Ossian vol. i. p. 168 and 170). And Richard accordingly says p. 13, Unde [a civitate Alcluth] *linea ad osium fluminis Vararis, de qua terminos ostendit* [Vespasiana].

fianæ]. The Creones therefore came up nearly to Dunbarton, as the Attacotti inhabited only the banks of the Cluyd, Clottaripas incolebant (p. 31). And as the river Longus was the southern boundary of the Creones, it must be the present Loch Long, and Ptolemy's Epidian promontory, and river Longus must have been transposed. Such transpositions we find in the fourteenth and twelfth Iter of Antoninus compared with the 11th of Richard,—“Richard’s map is again inaccurate. The Proper Caledonians are all fixed to the north of the Varar, when they all lay to the south of it. The Carnabii are extended over all the north of the island, and the Catini are placed to the south of them. And the Creones and the Cerones are transposed. Ptolemy has equally transposed them. But Richard’s description is more authentic than either. Dr. Stukely’s map has repeated all these mistakes, and added others, omitting also all the dotted boundaries of the kingdoms. The Caledonian wood, to which Richard’s map seems not to have given any particular position, the Dr. has planted to the north of the Proper Caledonians, and even to the west of the Mertæ and the Logi. The Carnabii are placed to the south of the river Nabrus. And the Catnonatæ, who should begin immediately to the south of the Nabrus, are pushed down to the south of the Straba fluvius, and have the whole body of the Catini interposing betwixt them and their northern barrier.—” Agric. V. c. 25 and 29.—” Caesar p. 34. *Britannia Imperium*.—” Richard p. 50.—” Ptolemy.—” Richard p. 25.—” Ptolemy.—” Caesar p. 88 and Richard p. 50.—” Richard p. 25.—” Richard p. 51: and Nennius calls him only *Rex Bellinus* (c. 14).—” Caesar p. 88.—” Caesar p. 92.—” See b. I. c. iii. f. 2.—” Dio. p. 227. Caesar p. 88.—” B. I. c. ix. f. r.—” Suetonius in Calig. and Dio p. 957 and 959.—” See Baxter in *Castrum Taxismagulus* and *Togidumnus*.—” Tacitus Ann. I. xii. c. 33. *Caractei*—*queni*—*extulerant*—*ut ceteros Britannorum Imperatores Preemineret*.—” See a note take therefore in Richard p. 7.—” Agric. V. c. 25, 27 and 29.—” Ibid. c. 29.—” See hereafter.—” Agric. V. c. 25 and Martial I. x. E. 44.—” Oman præf. to vol. ii. p. 4v.—” Agric. V. c.

25, Richard p. 29 and 30, and Dio p. 1280. See also f. 4.—
 “Richard p. 18 and 26.—“Miniores Populi, Richard p. 32. See
 f. 4. And thus the Israelites have been long denominated Ju-
 dæi or Jews from the name of their principal tribe.—“Dio p.
 1280.—“Ibid.—“The real name of the people that merely
 lived next to the wall of Antoninus was Horestii and Attæotti.
 But the Mæatæ were several nations, Dio p. 1280 *συλκεχωρηται*.
 “Ossian vol. ii. p. 219, the *ch* being quiescent as in Cromla
 for Cromlach (Ossian vol. i. p. 4.) in Cuneda or Cunedag (Nen-
 nius p. 102 and 142) and a thousand other words.—“A. Marcel-
 linus l. xxvii. c. 8. and Ptolemy. So Dubana now the river
 Ban in Ireland. So several places in Wales are denominated
 Deu-draeth or the sea-beach. So the inhabitants that range
 successively along the shore of Scotland in Ross Sutherland and
 Cathness are sometimes called by the Highlanders An Dua-
 ghach, and their country is sometimes denominated An Dua-
 ghachdack, to the present moment (Crit. Diss. Pref. p. viii). And
 as Dy or Du are the same word, Ammianus's Di-caledones is a
 good reading and needs no alteration. The prefacer to Dr.
 Macpherson's Critical Dissertations (p. viii) derives Deu-calc-
 dones from their northerly position, as Baxter had before de-
 rived it from their southerly. But their position was neither in
 the north nor in the south of Caledonia. They lay along the
 western coast, as appears from the western ocean being denomi-
 nated the Deucealedonian in Ptolemy.—“Eumenius's Pæneg.—
 “Except by Verstegan, who ridiculously derives the word from
 the Saxon Fight and Fighter, and by Dr. Macpherson in Crit.
 Diss., who idly deduces it from Piètdich a robber, p. iii.—“Cau-
 dian, Nec falso nomine Pictos. But in c. vii. f. 5, I have already
 shewn the Provincials to have certainly retained the custom of
 painting as well as the Caledonians.—“Nennius c. 2.—“Mona
 p. 261 and 262. and Lhuyd p. 19 and 20.—“See Lhuyd ibid.
 “Ch. 4 and f. 1.—“See Pliny l. iv. c. 16. Albion ipsi nomen
 fuit, cum Britannia vocarentur, omnes.—“And the name was
 accordingly communicated, at last to the inhabitants of Vespæ-
 siana,

siana, as they were in the third and fourth centuries equally with the other Caledonians without the pale of the Roman empire: See b. II. c. 1. Such of the Caledonians as we now call Highlanders still denominate themselves by the equivalent appellation of Al-ban-ich, the inhabitants of the Alb-an or Hills. The whole body of the Caledonians was also denominated Cruithnich (Baxter and Macpherson's pref. to vol. ii. p. v.). And this name has been generally derived from Craith, a cut or wound, the Picts making little incisions in their bodies in order to impress the painting, *Ferro Picta genas* (Claudian). This name has been recently interpreted to signify the Eaters of corn or wheat, the Picts being strangely supposed to live only along the eastern coast of Scotland, and to be distinguished from the other Caledonians by the knowledge of Agriculture (Macpherson, ditto). Both etymologies are obviously absurd. The provincials (as I have shewn c. vii. f. 5) equally painted their bodies as the Picts. And the Picts actually lived on the western and northern as well as on the eastern coast. And, whatever is the etymon of the name, the appellation was certainly not peculiar to the Caledonians. One of the Irish tribes was sometimes denominated Crutheni, Cruthen making Cruthen-ich as Gael is lengthened into Gaelich and Erin into Eirinach (Carte p. 158). And in *Patricii Opuscula a Waræo, Londini 1656*, their country is said to be in the northern parts of Ulster (p. 114). The name is obviously nothing more than Cruth-en-i or the Harpers, a name by which all the Irish have been distinguished in the title of Citharædi, the harp having been as much the national instrument of music to all the Britons as it is the national ensign of the Irish at present. — "Agric V. c. 24, 25, 26 and 29. — "Ossian V. ii. p. 194. — "Richard's Itinerary. — "Ibid. Fingal was the great grandson of this Pendragon by Trathal and Comhal, and, when he was yet young, opposed Caracalla in 211 (p. 87. v. i.). Allowing therefore 20 years or thereabouts to Fingal, and 30 to Comhal and as many to Trathal, we come very near to the only period of the second century, in which the *strangers* or Romans invaded

invaded the country, and fought many battles with the Caledonians (v. ii. p. 195 and 196). And as Comhal died the day on which Fingal was born (v. i. p. 114), the requisite deduction of 9 or 10 years from Comhal's 30 will bring us exactly to the period.—⁵¹ Ossian, p. 195. v. ii.—⁵² In Ossian we find frequent mention of the towers of Selma and the oaks of its shaded walls (v. i. p. 104), as Selma was, like the towns of the old Britons, in the middle of a forest. The stream of Cona flowed along the fortress or palace (v. i. p. 113), and on its entrance into the sea formed a bay for ships (p. 112). And the country was watered with five other rivulets, Balva (p. 97 and 98) Strumon (p. 230) Lora (p. 84. vol. ii) Duthula (p. 155. v. ii) and Carmona, the latter, like Cona, forming a bay (p. 229). And the isle of Mull must have belonged to the Creones, as the ships of Fingal are sometimes called the ships and his warriors the sons of the lonely isle (p. 29 and 36. v. i.), and as upon the western side of it and at the head of Loch Levin is still a place denominated Birtgael or Fingal.—⁵³ Ossian v. i. p. 132 and 222.—⁵⁴ Ossian.—⁵⁵ Ossian v. i. p. 95 and 96.—⁵⁶ "Ardven's sea-surrounded rocks". So Lochlin or Jutland is said to be surrounded with waves (p. 22. v. i.). So Tacitus, *summotis velut in aliam Insulam hostibus* (c. 23. Agric V.)—⁵⁷ See preface to Crit. Diss. p. ix. for the fact. And the bounding line of Caledonia and Vespasiana is drawn by Richard exactly along this chain of hills: *Vespasiana autem a Bdoræ Æstuario ad civitatem Alcluith, unde linea ad ostium fluminis Vararis ducta terminos ostendit* (p. 15).—

Richard p. 52.—⁵⁸ Ossian v. i. p. 87. expressly mentions Fingal to have opposed Caracalla in 211. And as Fingal had then been in Lochlin and loved Agandecca, the first of his loves (p. 42), and therefore prior to Comala (p. 87), he must have equally opposed Severus, who came into Britain only in 207 (Richard p. 52).—⁵⁹ Herodian l. 3. c. 48.—⁶⁰ Dio p. 1281 and Herodian *ibid.*—⁶¹ Dio p. 1281.—⁶² Richard p. 52. *Maetis*, and Richard p. 72. *Citerior pars [Caledoniæ] alio atque alio tempore ab illis [Romanis] possessa fuit*, and Dio p. 1282.—⁶³ Dio p. 1283.—⁶⁴ *Ibid.*—⁶⁵ Ossian v. i. p. 92.—⁶⁶ Ossian v. i. p. 91 and 92.—⁶⁷ Dio

1287 and Richard p. 53. — "Offian v. i. p. 96. — "Richard p. 59, Dio p. 1209 and 1260, and Herodian l. iii. c. 46. — "Am-
mianus l. xxvii. c. 8. and Richard p. 53.

III.

THE Saxons have been derived by our critics from various regions of the globe, from India, from the north of Asia, and from the forests of Germany. And their appellation has been equally referred to various causes, to the name of their Indian progenitor, to the plundering disposition of their Asiatic fathers, and to the short hooked weapons of their warriors. But the genuine origin of the Saxons and the genuine derivation of their name seems clearly to be this.

In the earlier period of the Gallic history, the Celtæ of Gaul crossed the Rhine in considerable numbers and planted various colonies in Germany'. Thus the Volcæ Tectosages settled on one side of the Hercynian forest and about the banks of the Neckar, the Helvetii upon another side of the forest and about the Rhine and the Main, the Boii beyond both, and the Senones in the heart of Germany'. Thus we see the Treviri, the Nervii, the Suevi, the Marcomanni, the Quadi, the Venedi, and others, in Germany, all plainly betrayed to be Gallic nations by the Gallic appellations which they bear, and all together possessing the greatest part of Germany'. And thus, even as late as the conclusion of the first century, we find one nation on the eastern side of this great continent actually speaking the language of Gaul, and another upon the northern side of it actually speaking a language nearly related to the British'. But as all the various tribes of the Germans are considered by Strabo to be γνησιοι Γαλαῖαι or genuine Gauls in their origin', so those nations particularly that lived immediately beyond the Rhine, and that are asserted by Tacitus to be indubitably native Germans', are expressly denominated Γαλαῖαι or Gauls by Diodorus, and are expressly de-
clared

clared by Dio to have been distinguished by the equivalent appellation of Celtæ from the earliest period⁷. And the broad line of nations which extended along the ocean and reached to the borders of Scythia were all known to the learned in the days of Diodorus by the same expressive appellation of Γαλαῖαι or Gauls⁸.

Of these nations the most noted were the Si-Cambri and the Cimbri⁹; the former being seated near the channel of the Rhine¹⁰, and the latter inhabiting the peninsula of Jutland¹¹. The denominations of both sufficiently indicate their original, and evince both to have been derived from the common stock of the Celtæ, and to have been of the same Celtic kindred with the Cimbri of our own Somersetshire and with the Cymri or Cambrians of our own Wales. The Cimbri are accordingly denominated Celtæ by Strabo¹². The Cimbri are accordingly asserted to be Gauls by Diodorus, to be the descendants of those Gauls who sacked the city of Rome, who plundered the temple of Delphos, and who subdued a great part of Europe and some regions of Asia¹³.

Immediately to the south of the Cimbri were the Saxons, and extended from the isthmus of the Chersonesus to the current of the Elbe¹⁴. These were equally Celtic in their origin as their neighbours. These were equally denominated Ambrones as Saxones¹⁵, and as such are included by Tacitus under the general appellation of Cimbri¹⁶, and are comprehended in Plutarch under the more general appellation of Celto-Scythæ¹⁷. And this denomination of Ambrones appears to have been undoubtedly Gallic in itself, being common to the Saxons beyond the Elbe and to the Ligurians in Cisalpine Gaul, as both found to their surprize on the irruption of the former into Italy with the Cimbri¹⁸. These Saxons or Ambrous composed a body of more than thirty thousand men in that irruption, and were principally concerned in cutting to pieces the large armies of Manlius and Cæpio¹⁹. And the appellation of Saxons must be equally Celtic as the denomination of Ambrous. It must originally have been the same with the Belgic Sueffones of Gaul, the capital of

the Sueffones being now entitled Soifons by the French, and the name of the Saxons being now pronounced Saffen by the Netherlanders, Safon by the Scotch, Saifen by the Welch, and Safenach or Saxfenach by the Irish. And the Sueffones or Saxones of Gaul very plainly derived their appellation from the position of their metropolis upon a river, the stream at Soifons being now denominated the Aisne and being formerly denominated the Axon²¹, Ueff-on or Ax-on importing only waters or a river, and S-ueff-on or S-ax-on signifying only the waters or the river. The Sueffones are therefore actually denominated the Ueffones by Ptolemy. And the Saxones are therefore absolutely entitled the Axones by Lucan²¹.

These Sueffones, who with their brethren and allies the Cimbri had been more formidable enemies to the Romans by land than the Samnites the Carthaginians the Spaniards the Gauls or the Parthians²², in the second century applied themselves to navigation, and became nearly as formidable to the Romans by sea. They soon made themselves known to the inhabitants of the British isles by their piracies in the northern seas²³, and were denominated by them Lochlyn or Lochlynach, Lucd Lyn signifying the People of the Wave, and the D being quiescent in the pronunciation²⁴. They took possession of the Orkney islands, which were then merely large shoals of sand, uncovered with ~~waters~~, and overgrown with rushes²⁵. And they landed in the north of Ireland and ravaged the country²⁶. Before the middle of the third century they landed a second time in Ireland, disembarked a considerable body of men upon the island, and designed the absolute subjection of the country²⁷. Before the conclusion of the third century they carried their naval operations to the south, infested the British channel with their little vessels, and made frequent descents upon the adjoining coasts²⁸. And in the fourth and fifth centuries, acting in conjunction with the Picts of Scotland and the Scots of Ireland, they ravaged all the eastern and south-eastern shores of Roman Britain, began the formal conquest of the country, and finally

settled their victorious soldiery in the kingdom of the Sistantii and in the possessions of the Mancunians²².

¹ Cæsar p. 123 and Tacitus de Mor. Germ. c. 28.—² Cæsar and Tacitus ibid., Livy l. v. c. 34, and Ptolemy. Tacitus therefore is inconsistent with himself in thinking the Germans to be unmixed c. 2 and 4.—³ Tacitus c. 28, 38, 42, and 46.—⁴ Tacitus c. 43 and 45.—⁵ P. 444.—⁶ C. 28.—⁷ Diodorus p. 350 and Dion p. 216. See also Dio p. 704 —⁸ P. 355. See also Plutarch's life of Marius p. 495. v. ii. Bryan.—⁹ Strabo p. 451.—¹⁰ Strabo p. 444 and 447.—¹¹ Ibid. p. 449.—¹² P. 449 and 450 —¹³ P. 355.—¹⁴ Ptolemy.—¹⁵ *Ambrones* in Plutarch and *Ambrones* in Dio; Nennius (Bertram) p. 140 and 143.—¹⁶ C. 37, compared with Plutarch p. 506 vol. ii. concerning the defeat of Manlius and Cæpio.—¹⁷ P. 405 compared with p. 501.—¹⁸ Plutarch p. 506. Ambron in Celtic signifies fierce. Hence Ambrones lupi in Gildas c. 13. And so also Ambrones in Bonifacii epist. l. p. 70. tom. 13. Maxima Bibliotheca Patrum. But in all probability this is only the secondary idea of the word, as Cimber latterly signified a thief and Briganticus a turbulent man. The original word is probably the same with Camber, the aspirate being omitted as in Umbri or Cumbri &c., and Camber making Cambri or Cambrones in the plural. And they are actually called Cimbri by Tacitus.—¹⁹ Plutarch p. 506.—²⁰ See Cæsar p. 34.—²¹ Ptolemy p. 53. Bertius, and Lucan l. i. 423.—²² Tacitus c. 37.—²³ Ossian v. i. p. 6.—²⁴ Ibid. They are therefore called the Sons of Ocean (vol. i. p. 17). And the Norwegians and Danes in the ninth century were called Lochlonnach or Mariners (Ware's Ant. of Ireland by Harris p. 60.). So in Ossian vol. i. p. 3, 7, and 14.—²⁵ Ossian vol. i. p. 14. and Solinus c. 22.—²⁶ Ossian vol. i. p. 17.—²⁷ Ibid. vol. i. p. 26 and 16. Fingal was then a middle-aged man, all his sons being then adults.—²⁸ Eutropius l. ix. c. 21.—²⁹ For the further account of the Saxons the Angles and the Jutes, see b. II. c. vi. f. 2. And more may be expected in b. III. c. 1.

IV.

CONFEDERATED with the Picts and the Saxons was another nation, that equally occasioned the Roman departure from our own Mancunium, and equally caused the complicated calamities of Roman Britain. These were the Scots, a nation that has been wildly derived from Scythia from Spain and from Caledonia, whose real origin has for a century and an half engaged two whole nations of contending antiquarians in war, and whose real history has hitherto remained involved in the obscurities of tradition and the dreams of conjecture. But the origin of the Scots, I presume, may now be clearly ascertained. And the history of the Scots, I think, may now be authentically detailed.

The isle of Ireland was inhabited by eighteen tribes, by one upon the northern and three upon the southern shore, by seven upon the western and six upon the eastern coast, and by one in the center. Along the eastern shore and the Vergivian or Internal ocean were ranged the Damnii, the Voluptii, the Eblani, the Caucii, the Menapii, and the Coriondii. The Damnii inhabited a part of the two counties of Antrim and Down, extending from Fair-Head the most north-easterly point of the island to Isamnum Promontorium or the point of Ardglass haven in the county of Down², and having the Logia or Carrickfergus Bay within their possessions and Dūnum or Down-Patrick for their capital. The Voluntii possessed the coast from the point of Ardglass haven to the river Buvinda or Boyne, the remainder of Down, the breadth of Ardmagh, and all Louth, having the river Vinderus or Carlingford river in their dominions, and the town Laberus near the river Deva, Atherdee in the county of Louth, for their metropolis³. The Eblani reached from the Boyne to the Læpius, Læv-ui, or Liffy, residing in East-Meath, and in the large portion of Dublin county which is to the north

of the Liffy, and acknowledging Mediolanum, Eblana, or Dublin for their capital *. The Caucii spread from the Liffy to the Letrim, the Oboca of the antients, over the rest of Dublin county, and over such parts of Wicklow as lie to the north of the Letrim, and owned Dunum or Rath-Downe for their principal city. The Menapii occupied the coast betwixt Letrim river and Cancarne Point, all the rest of Wicklow, and all Wexford to the Point; their chief town, Menapia, being placed upon and to the east of the Modona, Slanus, or Slane *. And the Coriondii inhabited at the back of the Caucii and Menapii, to the west of the Liffy and the Slane, in a part of Wicklow county, in all Kildare and in all Catherlogh, being bounded by the curving Boyne and the Barrow on the west, by the Eblani on the north, and by the Brigantes on the south. Upon the southern shore and along the verge of the Cantabrian ocean lay the Brigantes, the Vodiæ, and the Ibernii. The Brigantes owned the rest of Wexford and all Waterford, extending to the Black Water, Aven-More, or Dabrona on the south-west, having the great mouth of the Barrow within their territories, and Brigantia, Waterford, or some town near it, for their first city, giving the name of Brigas to the Swire, their liminary stream on the north, and leaving the appellation of Bergie to their own part of the county of Wexford. The Vodiæ possessed the county of Corke from the Black Water to the Ban, the river of Kintale and the Dobona or Dubana * of the antients, and gave the name of Vodium Promontorium to the Point of Balycotton island *. And the Ibernii possessed the remainder of Corke and all that part of Kerry which lies to the south-east of Dingle Sound, having Rufina or Ibaune for their capital, the Promontorium Austrinum or the Miffen-Head about the middle of their dominions, and the river Ibernus or Dingle Sound for their northern barrier, and leaving their names to the three divisions of Ibaune, Bearæ, and Iveragh *. Upon the western shore of the island and along the Great Britannic or Atlantic ocean were the Lucanii or Lucenii *, the Velaborii, the Cangani *, the Auterii, the Nagnatæ, the Hardinii *, and the Venicnii. The Lucenii inhabited the

the peninsula of land that lies along the river Ibernus or Dingle Sound, and perhaps some adjoining parts of Kerry. The Velaborii ranged along the small remainder of Kerry, and over the whole of Limerick to the Senus or Shannon, having the river Durius or the Cashcen flowing through their dominions', and owning Regia, Limerick, or some town near it', for their metropolis. The Gangani lived in the county of Clare, Macolicum near the Shannon'', perhaps Feakle, being their principal town, a point in the Bay of Galway near Glaniny being denominated Benisamnum Promontorium, and the adjoining isles of Arran being called from them Insulæ Canganae'. The Auterii were settled in the county of Galway, winding along the deep recesses of the Sinus Ausoba or Bay of Galway, stretching towards the north as far as the Libnius or the river that bounds the county of Galway in part, and possessing the small portion of Mayo county which lies to the south of that river; were subject to Auterium, Atterith, or Athenree; and have left their name to the division of Athenree. The Nagnatae occupied the rest of the large county of Mayo, all Sligo and all Roscommon, all Letrim as far as Lough Allin on the south-east, and all Fermanagh to Ballyshannon and Lough Erne; being bounded by the Rhebius or the river of Ballyshannon and the Lake Rhebius or Lough Erne, having a deep bay, called Magnus Sinus, curving along Mayo Sligo and Letrim counties, and acknowledging Nagnat, Necmaht, or Al-necmaht'', the town of the Nagnatae, for their capital. And the Hardinii and the Venicii were two tribes confederated together under the title of the Venician nations, extending from Ballyshannon to the North-Cape, and possessing all Donegalle except the two whole divisions of Raphoe and Enis-Owen and the eastern part of Killmacrenn division; the Venicii lying along the immediate margin of the shore, giving name to the Promontorium Venicium or Cape Horn and to the Insula Venicia or North-Arran Island, and their metropolis Rheba being seated upon the Lake Rhebius and in the country of the Hardinii on the south-east'. Upon the northern shore and along the margin of the Deucalionian ocean were only the Robogdii, inhabiting the rest of Donegalle,

Donegalle, all Derry, and all Antrim to the Promontory Fair-Head and the Damii, giving their own name to the Fair-Head and to the division of Raphoe, having the rivers Vidua or Ship-harbour, Argita or Lough Swilly, Darabouna or Lough Foile, and Banna or Ban in their territories, and acknowledging Robogdium, Robogh, or Raphoe for their chief city. And the central regions of the island, all Tyrone, the remainder of Fermanagh and Letrim, all Monaghan, the remainder of Ardmagh, all Cavan, all Longford, all West-Meath, all the King's and all the Queen's County, all Kilkenny, and all Tipperary, were planted by the Scoti; the Shannon, Lough Allin, and Lough Erne being their great boundaries upon the west, the Barrow, the Boyne, and Lough Neagh upon the east, the rivers Swire and Blackwater on the south, and a chain of mountains on the north; the two greatest of their towns being Rheba, a city seated, like the Rheba of the Venicians, upon the lake and river Rhebius, but upon a different part of them and somewhere in the north of Cavan, and Ibernja, a town placed a little to the east of the Shannon and somewhere in the county of Tipperary¹³.

When the Belgæ first landed upon the southern shore of Britain, about three hundred and fifty years before the Christian æra, and took possession of Kent Suffex Hampshire Dorsetshire and Devonshire, the native Britons, dislodged from their antient settlements, transported themselves into the neighbouring isle of Ireland¹⁴. This fine island was then entirely unoccupied, and now first received a colony of inhabitants¹⁵. This fine island was then denominated Er-in, Ierne, Ierine, or Ivernja, Er, Ier, or Iver, signifying the Western, and Inis, Inc, or In importing the Island¹⁶. And this colony was afterwards augmented by the addition of other Britons, equally dislodged from their native regions by the Belgæ, and equally repairing to the wilds of Ireland. This second colony of Britons was wafted over into Ireland about two hundred and fifty years after the first, when Divitiacus reduced the Bibroces of Surry, the Cassii of Middlesex and Essex, the Segontiaci, the Hædui, the Cimbri, and the Carnabi¹⁷. And both the colonies, flying equally from

the dominion of the Belgæ, very naturally incorporated themselves into one and the same society, and were as naturally distinguished among the Britons by one and the same denomination, the apposite appellation of the Scuites, the Wanderers, or the Refugees of Britain¹⁸.

The next colonies that were settled in Ireland were in all probability the Damnii and the Robogdii, the name of the former indubitably evincing its origin from the Damnii of Valentia, and both pretty certainly crossing the narrow strait from Galloway and Cantire. The Epidii and the Damnii lying the nearest of any Britons to the isle of Ireland, they must therefore be supposed, after the extraordinary embarkation of the Scuites, to have been the first of all the Britons that planted colonies within it. And the Damnii, who once owned all the sea-coast from the borders of Galloway to the wall of Antoninus, and who had even subdued both the Horestii and the Albani beyond it, must once (I apprehend) have undoubtedly possessed the whole extent of Galloway, and must have willingly resigned it up to the tribe of the Nou-ant-es or the New-comers. This appears from its appellation to have been a nation of foreigners, and from its situation must in all probability have been derived from the neighbouring shores of Ireland. And this was very probably a body of the Irish Damnii, that upon some rencounters betwixt the Robogdii or the Voluntii and them had retired from the island about the period of Agricola's entrance into Lancashire, had re-crossed the sea to the directly opposite coast of Galloway, and had been allowed to settle peaceably in the country. They were nearly related enough to the Damnii to be admitted into a participation of their territories, and they had been absent long enough from the country to be denominated Nouantes or strangers. And, what seems a striking confirmation of the opinion, an Irish Regulus appears expressly from Tacitus to have been expelled from the island in some internal commotion of it, who was treated with a very artful friendliness by Agricola, who gave the Romans a very just and a very encouraging information concerning the weakness of the state, and with whom Agricola had

had once resolved to make a descent upon Ireland, and actually to land in the region of the *Damnii* ¹⁹.

These two embarkations were most probably occasioned by the mere populousness of Britain, crowded as it now began to be with inhabitants, and by the mere vicinity of Ireland, very plain as it appeared to the eye from the shores of Cantire and Galloway. But the succeeding colonies were certainly occasioned by the wars of the Britons among themselves and of the Romans against the Belgæ and the Britons. And to these cause are the settlements of most of the colonies expressly attributed by Richard ²⁰.

About half a century before Christ the *Carnabii* of Cheshire, as I have formerly shewn, entered the country of the *Ordovices* and subdued the county of Shrewsbury. Upon this invasion the *Ordovices* that lived in the north of Shropshire and the neighbourhood of *Mediolanum* seem to have passed over into Ireland, and to have retained the memorial of their origin in the name of their capital, *Eblana* or *Mediolanum* ²¹. The former name evidently affixed the new appellation of *Eblani* to the tribe; and the latter seems as evidently to point out the old appellation of its city. Thus the colony of the *Cantii*, which spread from *Trinovantum* or *Londot* over the rest of *Middlesex* and the whole of *Essex*, carried the name of their original city in their appellation of *Trinovantes*. Thus the *Rhemi* of Gaul in the neighbourhood of *Bibrac-te*, coming over in a colony to Britain, and settling in the south-eastern parts of *Berkshire*, constructed the new city of *Bibrac-te* and formed the new tribe of the *Bibroc-es*. And thus we shall find the *Menapii* and others to have come over from particular towns in Britain, and to have retained the name of their original city in the present denomination of their tribe. And the *Gutheling* or *Watling Street* must have been constructed about fifty or sixty years after the settlement of these *Mediolanenses* upon the coast, and must have been carried from the *Rhutupæ* of the *Cantii* to the *Segontium* of the *Ordovices* in order to traffick with these the transplanted *Ordovices* of Ireland.

About the commencement of the Christian æra, the Brigantes of Yorkshire and Durham, as I have shewed before, invaded the counties of Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancaster and Chester; and three new tribes seem to have settled in the island. These are the Voluntii, the Caucii, and the Coriondii. The name of the Voluntii is a sufficient indication of their origin. And the name of the Caucii seems equally to indicate theirs, and to evince their derivation from the Coccium of the Sifuntii and the metropolis of Lancashire. When the names of any towns upon the western coast of Britain are retained, in the appellations of any tribes upon the eastern shore of Ireland, we must naturally conclude the one to have given denomination to the other. And that the nation of the Caucii and the tribe of the Menapii were not, as Richard asserts them to be, two colonies from the Cauchi and Menapii of Germany, we have positive reasons to conclude. All the tribes of the island must undoubtedly have come originally from Britain²². All the tribes of its eastern shore in particular must undoubtedly have come originally from the opposite coast of Britain. And we find the names of places in the countries which both of the nations possessed clearly and invariably Gallic, as Modona, Slanus, Clone-gall and Scare-walch, Ballinacur, Ballinderry, Rathdurm, Kilkenny, Kilnemoore, Ballifoyle, Kilrush, Killenagh, and Balageene among the Menapii, and as Dunum the metropolis and Oboca the liminary stream, Rathmines, Rathgar, Rathfarnum, Dundrum, Killininy, Kellgobbin, Killternan, Rath-Downe, Killcooli, and Killtamen among the Caucii. The Caucii and Menapii therefore must be as little Teutonic in their origin as the Damarii and the Voluntii, must as well as they have descended from the opposite coast of Britain, and must as well as the Bibroces of Britain be derived from some town of a kindred appellation with themselves. The Caucii in particular must be derived from the Coccium of the Sifuntii, a town the only one upon the coast that bears a similar appellation, a tribe the most likely of all others to have settled immediately to the south of the Voluntii; and Lancashire

thiſe muſt have ſent a colony of her children to plant the eaſtern ſhore of Ireland²¹. And the *Coriondii* (I apprehend) were equally derived from the *Carnabii* of Cheſhire, the name being written either *Carnabii*, *Corinavii*, or *Corion-dii*, and the laſt appellation being exactly the ſame with the firſt, and only *Diu* being ſubſtituted for *Ab* or *Av*²¹.

Thus far the Britons had lived unmixed with the Belgæ in Ireland, now conſiſted of ſeven tribes, and now poſſeſſed all the northern eaſtern and central parts of the iſland. And thus inhabited only by the genuine Britons, the iſland naturally received an appellation additional to its original name. This was not, like that, deduced merely from its poſition with reſpect to Britain, but was borrowed from the one common denomination of its poſſeſſors. This was the appellation of *Inis-Fael* or *Inis-Fallin*²², the iſland of the *Fael*, *Faell-in*, or *Gauls*. The *F*, *V*, and *W* in the Celtic language are equivalent letters²⁶, and *Fael*, *Vael*, and *Wall* all equally expreſs the one denomination of the Britons. Thus among the Britons of Wales we have *Cad-Fael-Hydr* or *Cad-Wal-adr*, *Hy-Fael* or *Ho-Wel*, and *Di-ofna-Fael* or *Dyfn-Wall*²⁷. And the denomination of the Britons among their own tribes and in all the neighbouring nations was popularly *Gall* or *Wall*: Hence the Saxon Chronicle mentions frequently the troops under Hengiſt and under *Ælla*, ſoon after the commencement of the war with the Britons, to have routed the *Wealas*, *Wylſhe*, or *Welch* in Kent and in Suffex²⁸. And hence the Britons of the Highlands denominate themſelves the *Cælic* or *Gallic*, and the Britons of Ireland entitle themſelves the *Eirinachr* or *Irish Cælic*, even to the preſent period. This appellation, which extended over all our iſlands and over a conſiderable portion of the continent. has been frequently explained by the critics both at home and abroad, but ſtill lies hid in its own original obſcurity. The genuine import of the word however ſeems pretty obvious to an attentive mind. And I ſhall endeavour to throw a ſtronger light upon it. The *Irish* and the *Highlanders*, as I have already remarked, reciprocally deno-

minate

minate themselves by the general title of Gael, Cael, or Gauls. But they also denominate themselves, and the Welch equally denominate them both and originally denominated themselves", by the general title of Guidhyl Guethel and Gathel. And this appellation is certainly the origin of the other. The intermediate *th* being left quiescent in the pronunciation, Gathel is immediately formed into Gael. Such a quiescence in general appears from the Irish language at present to have been once very frequent in the British. And this quiescence in particular appears actually in use among the Britons. That the intermediate *th* in general was actually melted away in the pronunciation, is plain from the British appellation of a fortress, Kadair and Kathair, which is now resolved into Kaer and Gaer, and from the names of Cathbait Cruthgall Sithfadda and the like, pronounced Cabait Crugall and Sifadda in the Highlands at present. And this British mode of pronunciation is even retained in the provincial English of the present day, Burthen being equally in Wales and in Lancashire contracted into Burn, the names of Rauthmell and Withnell being popularly pronounced Raumell and Winell in Lancashire, and Them Boatswain Southwold-Bay Northwood and Southton being everywhere colloquially reduced into 'Em Boson Sole-Bay Norwood and Sutton. That this intermediate *th* in particular was antiently melted away in the pronunciation, is more plain from the antient appellation of a district in Caledonia, which was antiently written Ar-Gathel, but is now written because it has been always pronounced Ar-Gael or Ar-Gyle. And the *th* is actually lost in the pronunciation both of the Irish and of the Highlanders to the present moment, and Gathel is actually founded by both to the present moment similarly to the other appellation of Gael". The Celtic name of Guidhyl Guethel or Gathel therefore was originally the same with the Celtic appellation of Cael Gael or Gaul, and the actual parent of it. But this is not all. The quiescent letters are frequently transferred

red from the middle to the conclusion of the word, where the letters are no longer quiescent; and as Needle is changed into Neeld in Lancashire, as Kathair is formed into Carth and Garth, so Gathel is changed into Galath. And we see the fact directly exemplified in the Gael of the continent being so frequently denominated Galatæ by the antients. Gathel Gael and Galath therefore are all one and the same flexible and varying appellation. And the appellation signifies merely the Woodlanders. Guedh and Goed import a wood among the Armoricans and the Welch, and Guylh-t and Guel-z signifies a man of the Guylh Guel or wood; all of them the evident remains of the antient Guidhil or Guethel a wood. Coil, the same with the Cuyllr of the Welch, and answering to Gael and Cael, is the customary term for a wood among the Irish and the Highlanders at present. And Gulad occurs in Gulad-ædh the Welch for a woodlander, and Kelyd appears in Kelydhon the British for woods, corresponding to Galath and Galat, and signifying with them a wood. The celebrated appellations therefore of Gathel-i Gall-i Galat-æ Calct-es An-Calit-es and Celt-æ signify merely a wood. And bearing the Celtic prefix before them which is used in the antient history of Ireland to the present period, as Fir-Bolg and Fir-Damnon, and which must have been previously used in more than half the national appellations of Britain, as Fir-Cant, Fir-Trinovant, Fir-Carnab, Fir-Volant, Fir-Sistuntiu, and various others, all these appellations, Fir-Gathel, Fir-Gael, and Fir-Galat, must have imported merely the Man of the Wood. But in one national denomination of the very same origin the termination is a little different, because the word is in the plural number, Kelyd or Caled lengthens into Kelydon or Caled-on woods. Thus Caledon became the antient appellation for all the extensive forests of the Gatheli and the Galli in the provinces of Britain. Thus Fir-Caledon or Caledon-es became equally the antient appellation for the Gathel and the Gael of the Highlands. And thus Caledonius became occasionally

sionally among the Romans an appellation equivalent to Britannicus, and was applied equally with it to all the Gathel and Gacl of all the island*.

But about forty-five years after the Christian epoch, when Vespasian attacked the Proper Belgæ, the Durotiiges, and the Damnonii, fought thirty battles with them and took more than twenty of their towns", many of the Belgæ would naturally put to sea from the coasts of Dorsetshire Devonshire Somerset and Cornwall, and flee for the southern coasts of Ireland'. That the Belgæ or Fir-Bolg were settled in several colonies upon the southern shore of the island, is sufficiently evident upon the face of the Irish history. That the Belgæ or Fir-Bolg came generally from the coasts of Devonshire Cornwall and South-Somersetshire, or the extended dominions of the Damnonii, is equally evident from their other appellation of Fir-Damnon among the Irish.

The first body of the Belgæ that landed in Ireland was a small embarkation from Inis-huna or the green-island". This is supposed by Macpherson to be some part of the great island of Britain and somewhere upon the south-western coast of it. But as the name demonstrates it to have been an island, so the circumstances mentioned concerning it evince it to have been a considerable island at the point of Cornwall. It is plainly implied to have been an island eminent for its arts of navigation, and is expressly declared to be separated from another land by a narrow tempestuous frith and to stand at the meeting of two seas". It must therefore have been one of the Silley islands,

* Many instances might be given. But one will be sufficient. In an address of Valerius Flaccus to Vespasian, he says thus,

Tuque o Pelagi cui major aperti
Fama, Caledonius postquam tua Carbasæ vexit
Oceanus, Phrygius prius indignatus Iulos.

Here we see the word Caledonius applied even to the British or southern channel, to the sea which is said to have disdained the yoke of Julius Cæsar. And even at the death of Vespasian the Romans had not yet entered into the real Caledonia at all.

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the Cassiteris of the Phœnicians, and the Silura of Solinus. the island that I have shewn to have once existed near the western point of Cornwall, to have been divided from it by a dangerous strait, and to have been since broken into a variety of shoals islets and rocks³⁵. The embarkation was made under the conduct of Larthon, the sovereign of the Damnonii or the subject Cassiterides³⁶. And the Vodiæ, as we shall directly perceive, must have been the first colony of the Belgæ in Ireland.

These must have been immediately followed by the Velaborii, the Lucenii, and the Ibernii, all equally Belgic as the Vodiæ, and with them the only Belgic colonies that appear to have landed upon the island. The Velaborii, Velaberi, or Veliberi³⁷, must have been the Damnonian inhabitants of Voliba or Voluba in Cornwall³⁸, Volub-er-ii signifying the men of Voluba. The Lucenii must have been the Damnonian inhabitants of Cenia in Cornwall³⁹, Lucd Cenia importing the people of Cenia, and the D (as I have shewn) being quiescent among the Irish. The Ibernii must have been derived from the Ibernio of Ravenias and the present Beare in Dorsetshire, and appear accordingly to have had a town denominated Ibernio or Beare in Ireland. And the Vodiæ must therefore have been the Belgæ that came from the Silley island.

Within five or six years after these settlements of the Belgæ in the south, upon the invasion of the Brigantian territories in the year 51 by Ostorius, a body of the Brigantes took shipping upon our western coast, and pushed over to the coast of Ireland⁴⁰. With the Brigantes embarked a body of Cangii or Cangani⁴¹, the Cangii of our Sifuntians, as appears plainly from their other appellation of Concangii⁴², a name appropriate to the capital town of the Sifuntian Cangii in Britain, and retained by some of the inhabitants of it on their removal into Ireland. And thus the Sifuntii, who had already planted a colony upon the eastern shore of the island, now planted another upon the western. The eastern coast was now nearly occupied from end to end, and the Brigantes entered upon the only vacant portion of it. In this situation, the Concangii were forced to cross the central

parts of the island and the dominions of the Scoti, and to settle upon the western shore. And with both or about the same period perhaps came the Auterii.

About the year 76 probably, when Julius Frontinus subdued the Silures and their subject Dimetæ, the Menapii came into Ireland; the Dimetæ in the neighbourhood of Menapia or St. David's passing over to the opposite coast of Ireland, and erecting another Menapia in the county of Waterford. The Coriondii were in all probability possessed of the coast before, as the Concangii in 51 found the eastern shore already occupied. And the Menapii must have attacked the inhabitants, have dislodged them from the coast, and have driven them beyond the Slane. There, confined too much by the Barrow on the west, they extended themselves to the north, and stretched along the back of the Liffy to the Boyne.

And about the year 140 probably, certainly before the period of Ptolemy's geography, upon the expedition of Lollius into Caledonia and his great successes in Vespasiana, the Venicnii and the Hardinii came into Ireland, and settled upon the north-western coast. The latter were certainly derived, as their name evinces, from Arden, Harden, or Caledonia. And both were evidently of the same kindred, being called together the two Venician tribes, and being together subject to their one metropolis in the country of the Hardinii.

In this state of the island, the Belgæ being confined by the Brigantes on the north-east the Scoti on the north and the Cangani and Auterii on the north-west, and the only unoccupied part of the coast lying directly beyond both the last, in Mayo Sligo Letrim Roscommon and Fermanagh, their colonies, more populous than the others (as the sequel of the history demonstrates), soon began to raise commotions in the island, and seized the large vacant extent of the western coast. They must therefore have crossed the Shannon, have entered the country of the Cangani and Auterii, and have subdued them both. If they had not subdued them, they could not have proceeded to the north, and have settled under the abovementioned appellation

lation of Nagnatæ in the long extent of the abovementioned counties. And if the other tribes of the Britons had not seen some particular instances of the old encroaching spirit of the Belgæ in Ireland, slow as the Britons ever were to unite in one common cause, they would not have combined so readily and so heartily as we shall soon see them combine against the Belgæ.

In this new state of the island, the Belgæ possessed the whole counties of Cork Kerry and Limerick in Munster, the counties of Clare Galway Mayo Sligo Roscommon, and the greatest part of Letcher, in Connaught, and a part of Fermanagh county in Ulster; and the Britons occupied the rest of Ulster, all Leinster, and a part of Munster: the barriers betwixt them being the river of Blackwater, the mountains of Tipperary, the course of the Shannon, and the length of Lough Erne. The two nations were now pretty equally opposed, the Britons possessing most land, and the Belgæ being the most populous. And a general war immediately ensued. The same chief who had conducted the new colony across the Shannon was still the active sovereign of them⁴². The war must have commenced therefore within a few years after that expedition; and as Trathal the son of Trenmor was then upon the throne of the Cræones⁴³, it must have begun about the year 160 or 170. And it lasted with many intermissions and various success for more than an hundred years.

The Belgæ were much better fitted for a general war than the Britons. They were subject to one governor, a descendant from the original conductor of the Belgæ into Ireland, the hereditary monarch of the Nagnatæ, and the hereditary Peadrægon of the tribes⁴⁴. "The chiefs of the south gathered round the "echoing shield of Crothar, the king of Alnecma, and the first "of the race of Bolga⁴⁵." And Alnecma or Nagnata is therefore in the Geography of the cotemporary Ptolemy distinguished above all the cities of Ireland by the peculiar and appropriate character of *πολις επισημος* or illustrious city. The Britons (the Hardinii, the Venicnii, and the Robogdii, pretty certainly) were defeated by the Belgæ, and the country was overrun⁴⁶. In di-

strels they applied for assistance to Caledonia, the land "of the race of their fathers"⁷. Assistance came. Conar, the second son of Tienmor, headed the troops⁸. And the invaders were repelled⁹.

The advantages of the Belgic form of government had now been experimentally perceived, and an immediate union appeared necessary among the dispersed tribes of the Britons. "The nations gathered in Ullin" or Ulster¹⁰, and resolved to appoint a pendragon. And they unanimously nominated Conar to the office, a chief nearly allied, as he must have been¹¹, to the Vénician and Robogdian monarchs, an hero full of glory for his former as well as his late successes in war¹², and the only dictator by whom they might be sure to derive succours from Caledonia upon any future emergency. Conar was invested with a military authority over all the tribes of the Britons; and the office was descendible to his heirs. The Britons, like the Caledonians before them, were embodied together under the one Celtic appellation of all the Britons. The Britons, like the Caledonians before them, were incorporated into one monarchy under the more distinguishing denomination of their principal tribe. By the former they were denominated Gathel Cael or Gauls, as I have already shewn. By the latter they were entitled Scuite or Scoti, as the progress of the history and the accounts of Bede inform us. Temora, a town in the country of the Eblani, and the present Terah in the county of East-Meath, was made the capital of the confederated tribes. And this is expressly denominated by Bede the metropolis of the Scots¹³.

Thus united, they were soon attacked by the Belgæ. Success attended the attack. The Britons were reduced to great distress. Conar was obliged to solicit assistance from Caledonia. Assistance came. The tide of success was turned. The Belgæ were defeated. And the country was recovered¹⁴.

Unlucky as these expeditions had hitherto been, the Belgæ were actuated with too encroaching a spirit to be long at peace. Conar died soon after the last expedition. Cormac his son succeeded him: and he was now aged¹⁵. The Belgæ marched with a
 • large

large army into the country of the Britons, conducted by their king Colculla. Cormac in vain resisted his efforts. He was greatly distressed. He applied to his second cousin Fingal, the young sovereign of Morven and pendergon of Caledonia. Fingal sent him a body of auxiliaries. The auxiliaries and the principals were both defeated by the Belgæ. The young monarch came over in person. His army consisted only of three hundred men. He was joined by a new army of the Britons. At the head of both he attacked the victorious Belgæ. They were not able to withstand him. Colculla was slain by the hand of Fingal. And all his army was dispersed ¹⁶.

This blow was a severe one to the Belgæ. It damped their enterprising spirit for many years. And the Britons, content to repel the invaders, and the infant weakness of many of their tribes requiring the repose of peace, carried not the war after them, and invaded not the Belgic regions. And the peace appears to have lasted for the remainder of the reign of Cormac, through the whole reigns of Cairbre and Artho his successors ¹⁷, and for some time during the minority of Cormac the second the son of Artho. Recovered by so long a peace and actuated by their former spirit, the Belgæ made another effort about the year 260... It was their last. It was a bloody one. It decided the fate of the island.

The Belgæ under the conduct of Torlath advanced into the British territories. Cuchullin met them with the Britons. They fought. Torlath and Cuchullin were killed. But the Belgæ were routed ¹⁸. The Belgæ advanced with another army. It was surprized by the Britons in the night and defeated ¹⁹. But the enemy, making a forced march with a third army to Temora in East-Meath, surprized the capital, seized the young monarch, and put him to death ²⁰. The army of the Britons marched with great expedition to prevent it. It came too late. It was overwhelmed with astonishment at the event. And it immediately dispersed ²¹. The Belgæ everywhere recovered themselves, took advantage of the confusion, and under the command of their king

king Cairbar and his brother Cathmor made themselves masters of the whole country ⁵².

In this exigence, the Caledonian monarch, now advanced in years, came over again. And with him came again success. Cairbar lay with his army upon the coast to prevent his landing. The army was routed and Cairbar killed. Cathmor marched up and attacked the victorious troops. And Cathmor and all his army fell ⁵³.

In this defeat the royal line of Lathion seems to have been destroyed. The Belgæ would naturally fall into confusion. And the Britons would as naturally take advantage of it. The Belgæ, weakened by many defeats, and most probably without a monarch, would be now attacked by the Britons, flushed with victory, united under one head, Ferad-artho ⁵⁴, and taught by sad experience to prosecute an offensive war. And in these circumstances the Belgæ would certainly be reduced by the Britons. So reduced they pretty certainly were at this period. So reduced they undoubtedly were within fifty or sixty years after it. In the year 320 the Britons, no longer requiring assistance from the Caledonians, sent a body of the islanders into Caledonia, and even fixed a considerable colony within it ⁵⁵.

This great revolution in the internal condition of Ireland must have given the island a new name and a new figure in Europe. It naturally assumed a new importance, being now for the first time united under one head. And it naturally adopted the appellation which the confederated Britons had previously borne, and which the victors must have necessarily communicated to the vanquished. Thus, together with the British tribes and among some barbarous nations upon the ocean, we find the *Scotica gentes* or the tribes of the Scots enumerated by Porphyry about the year 270 ⁵⁶. Thus we see the Scoti or the Irish fixing a settlement upon the western coast of Caledonia in the year 320 ⁵⁷, and ravaging the Roman provinces about 360 ⁵⁸. And thus we find absolutely the whole number of the Irish tribes denoted by the appellation of Scoti before the conclusion of the fourth century ⁵⁹.

The first entrance of the Scots into Britain was in the year 320; and a considerable body of them then settled in Caledonia¹², in the country of the Deucaledones, and in the dominions of the Creones¹¹. They came not upon any hostile expedition. This the great connexion that had subsisted betwixt the Scots and the Creones, this the frequent reinforcements that had been sent by the latter to the former, this the near alliance of the Scottish and the Creonian monarchs, must have effectually forbidden. They came not merely upon an invitation from the Caledonians and only with a design to engage in the wars with them. Had they come only with this design, they would have regularly lent their assistance, and they would never have received any settlements. They must therefore have crossed the sea from Ireland upon another design. And it was in all probability this. The kings of Ireland being equally with the monarchs of the Creones descended from Trenmor, and the elder line of Trenmor undoubtedly failing in Ossian, “the last of the “race of Fingal¹³,” the crown of the Creones must have devolved to the younger line, the family of Conar, and the monarchs of Ireland. Ossian lived long after the rest of the family, long after Fingal had “fallen asleep with his race of battle,” as he had seen a new race arise that “marked no years with their “deeds.”” He must have died therefore in an advanced old age, and about the year 320. The monarch of Ireland would immediately take possession of the kingdom, and would naturally give it as an appenage to one of his sons. The monarch of Ireland accordingly sent Fergus with a body of troops and the authority of a sovereign¹⁴. And he landed, took possession of the crown, and settled his Scots in the country¹⁵.

Thus fixed in Caledonia agreeably to the laws of the country and with the full consent of the natives, the Scots readily joined the Picts in their incursions into the Roman provinces. In 368 the Picts in general, the Attacotti in particular, and the Scots confederated with both, harrassed Valentia with perpetual inroads¹⁶. And thus they continued to act ever afterwards, jointly crossing the Cluyd in their curroghs, jointly overrunning Valentia:

and

and penetrating into *Maxima*, and jointly beginning the great æra of calamities which appears so sadly conspicuous in the succeeding history of Roman Britain of Lancashire and of Manchester.

¹ Richard p. 43. and Ptolemy.—² Richard's Map.—³ Richard's Map. This shews the *Isannum Promontorium* and the *Vindurius flu.* to have been transposed in Ptolemy. *Laberus* derived its name assuredly, not, as Baxter has wildly deduced it, from *Lhavar Sermo vel Concio*, but from *Labhar* the characteristick of a river, signifying Noisy, and importing its situation on a river.—⁴ *Eblana* must have been also spoken *D-Eblana*, as we have *Avon* and *D-Avon* for the same appellation; and *Eb-lan* or *Deb-lan* signifies the Forticks on the Water.—⁵ Richard and Ptolemy for *Modona* and *Menapia*, and the biographers of Saint Patrick for *Slanus*.—⁶ Richard's Map.—⁷ Richard's Map.—⁸ Ptolemy.—⁹ Ptolemy and Richard's Map.—¹⁰ Richard's Map.—Ptolemy calls them *Erudinii*.—¹¹ Richard's Map and Ptolemy.—¹² *Ossian* vol. ii. p. 36.—¹³ Richard's Map of Ireland has some inaccuracies in it. And Dr. Stukeley's Copy has more. The river *Buvinda*, which is given in Richard's description to the *Voluntii* and must have been their southern boundary, is given in Richard's Map to the *Eblani*, and these are planted to the north as well as to the south of it. The southern border of the *Eblani*, which must assuredly have run along the *Liffy*, is carried below it. The southern border of the *Caucii*, which was certainly along the *Oboca*, is also carried below it. The *Corindii* are placed too far to the west. The *Menapii* are carried to the Bagrow. The *Brigantes* are pushed beyond it. And the *Scoti*, who should be all to the east of the *Shannon*, are all placed to the west of it. Dr. Stukeley has copied most of these mistakes, and added others. He has suffered most of the names to be disfigured by the negligence of the engraver, *Vodiæ* being changed into *Vocliæ*, *Sena* into *Lena*, *Argita* into *Argela*, *Darabona* into *Danæbona*, &c. He has omitted several names and places;

places; the name of the river Libniſ and of the towns Nagnata and Robogdium; and the Vodium Promontorium, the Benitannium Promontorium, and the Inſula Venicnia. And the Voluntii are brought down only to the river Deva, the Eblani are fixed in all the country betwixt the Deva and the Buvinda, and the Rhebius Lacus is carried too far to the north of the Magnus Sinus.—¹⁴ Richard p. 50. A. M. 3650.—¹⁵ P. 42. Richard: Certiſſimum eſt Damnios, Voluntios, Brigantes, Cangos, aliaſque nationes, origine fuiſſe Britannicâ, quæ eò poſtea [poſt Scotos] trajecerunt.—¹⁶ Iwerddon is the name of Ireland among the Welch at preſent, Iwer Ton or Tan, the Weſtern country.—¹⁷ Richard p. 42. Quæ eò—trajecerunt, poſtquam Divitiacus—vel duces alii victores illis domi tumultum fecerant: And p. 50, Circa hæc tempora.—¹⁸ Richard p. 50; In Hiberniam commigrarunt ejeſti a Belgis Britones, ibique ſedes poſuerunt, ex illo tempore Scotti appellati: And Macpherſon in Oſſian vol. i. p. 130. and vol. ii. Preface p. v.—¹⁹ Agric. Vit. c. 24. A legion and a tolerable number of auxiliaries were then juſtly deemed ſufficient to reduce the iſland, ſo thinly was the country inhabited, ſo much were moſt of the colonies in their infancy, and ſo little were they united together.—²⁰ P. 42. Certiſſimum eſt Damnios, Voluntios, Brigantes, Cangos, aliaſque nationes origine fuiſſe Britannicâ, quæ eò poſtea [poſt Scotos] trajecerunt, poſtquam vel Divitiacus, vel Claudius, vel Oſtorius, vel duces alii victores illis domi tumultum fecerant: And p. 45. Non poſſum non in hec loco monere, Damnios, Voluntios, Brigantes, & Cangianos, omnes fuiſſe Britannicæ originis nationes, quæ cum vel ab hoſte ſinitimo non daretur quies, vel tot tantaque exigenter tributa quibus ſolvendis ſe impares intelligerent,—in hanc terram trajecerunt.—²¹ Richard p. 44. Mediolanum.—²² Diodorus p. 355. And ſee Camden c. 1314.—²³ So Charaticus is called by the Welch Caradoc and Caradauc, ſo Cadwallon or Cadwallaun, ſo a river in Somerſetſhire Thone and Taun, and Mauf or Mor, Great, and an hundred others. •• Thus alſo in Lancaſhire particularly one river is popularly called, and written Laun or Lon, and our own Tame is called by the natives

and written in records both 'Taum and 'Tom. — " The Carnabii are more strangely denominated Cornini by Ravennas. — " Offian vol. i. p. 5. An islet in the lake of Killarney is still called Inise-Fallin. — " Mona p. 305. — " P. 302. *ibid.* — " P. 14. — " Camden c. 808. and Mona p. 27. — " Offian vol. i. p. 3, 7, 148, vol. ii. p. 72, and Crit. Diff. p. 97. — " Suetonius p. 240. Oxon. He speaks of them only as two states. And Richard does the same, calling all the southern tribes from Kent or Suffex (p. 18.) to the Land's End by the two appellations of the Belgæ and the Damnonii (p. 17.) — " Richard p. 42. Claudius. — " Offian vol. ii. p. 129 and 131. — " Offian vol. ii. p. 143 and 145. — " Ch. xi. f. 2. — " Offian p. 131. vol. ii. — " Richard and Ptolemy. — " Richard Iter 16. — " Richard p. 51. A. M. 4050. Circa hæc tempora, relicta Britannia, Cangi & Brigantes in Hiberniam commigrarunt, sedesque ibi posuerunt: And p. 42. Ostorius. — " Richard p. 43. — " Offian vol. ii. p. 36. — " *Ibid.* — " P. 30. — " P. 130 and 36. — " P. 36 and 37. — " P. 37 and 38. — " P. 38 and 31. — " *Ibid.* — " P. 38. — " P. 31. — " *Ibid.* " The king of " the race of their fathers." — " P. 30. — " Themoria, civitas ubi etiam *tunc* Regni Scotorum erat caput, S. Patricii Vita, p. 316. tom. iii. in Bedæ Opera omnia, Basil. 1563; and Waræi Ant. Hib. London 1654. c. 22. p. 95. — " Offian vol. i. P. 31 and 32. — " Vol. ii. p. 58 and 66. — " Vol. ii. p. 58, 59, 66, 67, and 68. — " Vol. ii. P. 18 and 141. — " Vol. i. p. 151, &c. — " P. 166. — " Vol. ii. p. 21 and 22, and Themoria civitas ubi etiam *tunc* regni Scotorum erat caput (Bede's Patricii Vita p. 316). — " Vol. i. p. 166. — " P. 166. vol. i. &c. — " Vol. ii. p. 6—15 and p. 23 and 149. — " Vol. ii. p. 155. He was the second son of Cairbar (p. 141. vol. ii.), and uncle to the lately murdered Cormac. — " Richard p. 53. A. M. 4320. Ductu Regis Fergusii in Britanniam transeunt Scotti, ibique sedem figunt. — " Jerom in Epist. ad Ctesiphontem. — " Richard p. 53. — " A. Marcellinus lib. xxvii. c. 8. — " Ware's Patricii Opuscula (London 1656) p. 16, Claudian de laud. Stil. l. ii. p. 140. Elzevir 1677. 'Totam cum movit Iernem Scotus, and Bede's Patricii Vita p. 316.

And

And in Bede's Hist. lib. iii. c. 3. we find the Belgæ of the south expressly denominated Scots.—⁷⁰ Richard p. 53, and Bede's Eccl. Hist. lib. i. c. 1.—⁷¹ Gildas c. 11, Scoti a Circio, and c. 15. Trans Tithicam Vallem vecti—Scotorum Pictorumque greges, and Bede lib. i. c. 1.—⁷² Ossian vol. i. p. 236. See also p. 48 and 59.—⁷³ P. 48 and 71, 59, 81, 236, 260 and 267, vol. i; and p. 203. vol. ii.—Fingal, by the tradition of Ireland, died in 283.—⁷⁴ Richard p. 53. And as the ready passage of the Scots afterwards across the Cluyd into Valentia sufficiently evinces, and the express assertion of Bede lib. i. c. 1. confirms, he settled the Scots on the south-eastern side of his dominions and in the present shire of Argyle. And the Scots have always considered Argyleshire as the seat of their first settlement in Britain.—⁷⁵ Ammianus lib. xxvii. c. 8.

V.

THE provinces being thus vigorously assailed upon the north and east, and the tenth the seventh and the twentieth legions being probably transported out of the island at the same period, as I have already shewn the last of them to have been certainly resident among us nearly to the middle of the fourth century, the remaining troops of the island were only the sixth Victorious and the second Augustan legions and a body of auxiliaries. This body however was more than the regular auxiliaries belonging to two legions. This body was nearly the whole number belonging to four. As the auxiliary cavalry was double in number to the legionary, as the latter was somewhat more than seven hundred men to each legion, and as the former was thrown into six or independent troops of four or five hundred men, six ala must have been the complement of auxiliary horse for a couple of legions. But the Notitia expressly mentions eleven bodies of cavalry in the island, five of them specified as ala, and the other

fix forming, like the alæ, as many distinct garrisons, and being therefore in all probability nearly equal to them in number. And though, as I have formerly shewn¹, sixteen cohorts made up the complement of auxiliary foot for a couple of legions, the Notitia enumerates seventeen, and mentions besides sixteen auxiliary numeri or bodies that, like the cohorts, formed as many distinct garrisons, and were therefore in all probability nearly equal to them in number. The number of auxiliary horse coincides pretty nearly with the number of auxiliary foot; and both together compose pretty nearly the regular complement of auxiliaries for four legions. And the total amount of the forces in Britain at this period in all probability must have been about twelve thousand legionary and twenty-four thousand auxiliary foot, and about one thousand four hundred legionary and five thousand auxiliary horse, or thirty-six thousand infantry and six or seven thousand cavalry. These, as I have previously evinced², were totally insufficient of themselves to garrison the various stations of the country. This must have been never intended. A considerable change must have been designed in the disposition of the forces, and a new appearance was actually given to the military aspect of the country. The troops were no longer disposed in long lines of stationary sorts, and no longer ranged across the island in every direction. The Romans prudently broke up the lines of their encampments, and quartered almost all their troops upon the northern and eastern frontiers³. The interior regions of the country no longer required any stationary garrisons; secured from the fear of insurrections by the legionary citizens in the colonies and by the Romanized disposition of the Britons. And this change in the arrangement of the Roman forces appears to have happened in the year 394. The Scottish invasion of Roman Britain which shall be described hereafter must certainly have been occasioned by it; that invasion was made in the year 395, as I shall soon endeavour to shew; and one winter was sufficient, and one winter was requisite, to raise the large army which the Scots collected for the expedition. In the year 394 therefore the Romans everywhere⁴ broke up the

regular series of their encampments, deserted nearly all the stationary forts in the center of the island and upon the western coast, and filed off to the eastern shore and the northern wall. In the year 394 therefore the Romans broke up their long-continued encampment in the Castle-field and upon the site of the collegiate church and collegiate house at Manchester, the first cohort of the Frisini, Frisiaci, or Frixagi marching away into the north^e, and finally leaving us just three hundred and fifteen years from the original settlement of the Romans in the Castle-field and the original erection of Mancunium in the field of Aldport, about four hundred and fifty from the original construction of Mancenion, and about nine hundred from the original inhabitation of the parish and the county.

As the Romans previously carried their arms into the mediterranean parts of the island, they secured their conquests by a line of forts upon their northern border, to cut off the communication betwixt the conquered and the unconquered Britons, and to prevent any invasion of the country by the latter. Thus Ostorius fortified the isthmus betwixt the Sabriana or the Severne and the Autona or the Nen, the Aufona of Richard, and the river of North-ampton or North-anton, as South-ampton is denominated Claus-entum by Richard and Antoninus, and the greater river at Southampton is denominated Tris-anton by Ptolemy; carrying a long chain of forts directly from the one to the other. Thus a second series was drawn from the Eden to the Tyne, certainly before the reign of Hadrian, and probably in the days of Agricola^s. And thus a third was constructed certainly by Agricola betwixt the friths of Forth and Cluyd^e. These lines of fortresses the Romans laid out at their first conquest of the country. And these lines they regularly continued afterwards upon their peaceable settlement in the provinces. But as the Caledonians in the reigns of Trajan and of Hadrian had overrun Valentia and penetrated into Maxima^{is}, pretty certainly avoiding the frequent forts in the narrow isthmus betwixt the friths by crossing the Cluyd in their curroghs, and afterwards

passing

passing betwixt the fewer forts, on the wider isthmus of Cumberland and Northumberland; Hadrian connected the latter by a regular wall of turf ". And as the Brigantes or Britons afterwards passed the forts betwixt the friths ", and invaded Genou-
 nia, Ge-Nouania, the land 'of the Nouanci or Novantes ", Lollius united the former by another wall of turf ". Hadrian meant not by the one erection to resign up the province of Valentia to the power of the Caledonians, any more than Severus meant it by rebuilding the wall of stone ", when he was just returning from or was just advancing to the intended subjection of all Caledonia. Hadrian meant not by the one erection to resign up the province of Valentia to the enemy, any more than Lollius meant by the other to resign up the conquests of Agricola in the country of the Horestii, when he was actually preparing to reduce all the Caledonians. The walls were erected to continue the chain unbroken from fort to fort, and to preclude the Caledonians from slipping by the forts and ravaging the country. They could no longer pass by the forts upon the friths and the rivers. And if they crossed the friths in their vessels, they were liable to be attacked by the troops from the stations, and they were effectually restrained in their progress by the wall betwixt the rivers. Valentia was constantly retained in the power of the Romans, Genounia being subject to them at the period of the invasion and betwixt the construction of the wall of Hadrian and the erection of the vallum of Antoninus ". And the whole province remained under the dominion of the Romans to the days of Severus ", to the reign of Constantine ", and to the final secession of the Romans from the island ".

But now when the Romans collected their forces to the northern and eastern border, and even many years before this period, in the time of Antonine's Itinerary, they appear not to have made the wall of Antoninus the principal barrier of the country, and to have lined it particularly with troops. The ready passage and the customary conveyance of the Picts and Scots

Scots across the frith of Cluyd into the province" rendered any considerable garrison at the northern wall superfluous and useless. One however was retained beyond the middle of the third century, and was attacked by Oscar the grandson of Fingal, when "Caros King of ships," Carus, the admiral of the Roman navy, which was regularly stationed at Rutupæ", and which seems then to have been accidentally in one of the friths, landed perhaps a reinforcement of men, and certainly took the command of the garrison". And in the period of Antonine's Itinerary, in the period of the imperial Notitia, the Romans must certainly have still retained a garrison at the wall, as they still retained the province of Valentia. And in both periods the Caledonians appear to have not seized at all, as they certainly would have seized if there had been no garrison at the wall, even the northern and more neighbouring parts of the province. They appear only to have infested the provinces with their former inroads, crossing the Cluyd, and ravaging the country". And they first took possession even of the more northerly regions of it only at the final departure of the Romans from the island".

And if we examine the Itinerary of Antoninus and the accounts of the Notitia unbiassed by the determinations of our present antiquarians and attentive only to the obvious import of the notices, we shall find this reasoning confirmed by the one and illustrated by the other. The first Iter of Antoninus bears this title prefixed to it, *A Limite i. e. A vallo. Prætorium usque*, and afterwards enumerates the towns

A Bremenio

Corstopitum.—

This Iter therefore undoubtedly commences from one of the walls: and the early nomination of Bremenium in the Iter at once evinces it to begin from the wall of Antoninus, the one Limes or boundary of Roman Britain. Bremenium is demonstrated by a particular inscription" to be the present Riechester in Northumberland, and about eighteen miles to the north

of the wall of Severus. And the second Iter of Antoninus exhibits this title and these names,

Ad Allo ad Portum Ritupas,

A Blato Bulgio

Castra Exploratorium m. p. 12

Luguvallio m. p. 12.

This Iter therefore commences equally from one of the walls, and, as the mention afterwards of Luguvallium demonstrates, commences equally from the wall of Antoninus. Luguvallium was certainly at the wall of Severus, and is in the fifth Iter actually denominated Luguvallium Ad Vallum. Thus plainly are two Itinera of Antonine evinced to begin from the more northerly vallum, and to traverse the whole province of Valentia. And thus plainly are the Romans evinced to have garrisoned the walls betwixt the friths even as late as the reign of Constantine and in a part of the fourth century. And the Notitia is still more particular. It not only points out the continuance of the Roman soldiers at the northern vallum. It specifies the number of forts that were garrisoned at it, and it gives us a list of the forces that were quartered in them. Twenty-three stations are placed by the Notitia *per lineam Valli*. And the first eighteen of these are demonstrated by Horsley to range along the line of the southern wall²⁰. These eighteen compose the whole length of that extended chain of forts which secured the Vallum of Severus²¹. Where then shall we settle the other five? We act in full contradiction to the declaration of the Notitia, if we transfer them from the line of the wall and plant them at a distance from it. They are declared as expressly as the others to be *per lineam Valli*. Demonstration shews them not to have been placed along the range of the southern Vallum. Prejudice therefore must acknowledge them to have been certainly constructed along the line of the northern.

But there is one very remarkable circumstance in the two abovementioned Itinera of Antoninus, which has never been observed by the critics. The one Iter begins thus,

A Limite

A Limite i. e. A Vallo Prætorium usq;

A BRAMENIO

Corstopitum m. p. 20; and the other begins thus,

A Vallo ad Portum Ritupas,

A BLATO BULGIO

Castra Exploratorum m. p. 12.

These, and only these, Itinera begin in this extraordinary manner. And this alone pretty evidently points out, that some station or stations have been omitted in the copies before A Bramenio in the one and before A Blato Bulgio in the other. One or more stations have undoubtedly been lost betwixt the Limes and Bremenium in the first, and betwixt the Vallum and Blatum Bulgium in the second. Had not one or more been omitted in the list, the commencing point must have been the Vallum in both, and Bremenium and Blatum Bulgium could have been only two intermediate stations in either. And this is proved to be true by the Itinerary of Richard. We have the very same route described by the fifth Iter of Richard as is traced by the first Iter of Antonine. And we have the stations that are forgotten in the latter particularly enumerated in the former.

Antonine's 1st Iter.

A Limite i. e. A Vallo Prætorium
usq;—m. p. 156.

A Bremenio.

Corstopitum m. p.	20
Vindomora m. p.	9
Vinovia m. p.	19
Catarractoni m. p.	22
Ifurum m. p.	24
Eburacum m. p.	37
Derventione m. p.	7
Delgovitia m. p.	13
Prætorio m. p.	25

N n n

Richard's 5th Iter.

A Limite Prætoriam usq;
fic,

Curia m. p.

Ad Fines m. p. . . .

Bremenio m. p. . . .

Corstoplio m. p. 20

Vindomora m. p. 9

Vindovio m. p. 19

Catarractoni m. p. 22

Eboraco m. p. 40

Derventione m. p. 7

Delgovicia m. p. 13

Prætorio m. p. 25.

Thus

Thus plainly was a Roman garrison continued at the wall of Antoninus to the final departure of the Romans from the island. The number of troops however which was stationed at this Vallum was very inconsiderable for the reasons which I have already suggested. The only forts that were garrisoned at all were five in number, Glannibanta, Alione, Bremetenracum, Olenacum, and Virofidum". And the only forces that were lodged in them were four cohorts and a body of cuirassiers". The stations were pretty certainly the five forts which still appear more considerable than the rest betwixt the firths, New Kirkpatrick, Bemulie, Barhill, Castlecary, and Rough-castle. The first is described as a very large fort, the second as a prodigious one, the third as very large and well preserved, the fourth as magnificent and best preserved of any, and the fifth as vast magnificent and entire". And as the eighteen stations along the line of Severus's wall are certainly enumerated from east to west", the remaining five along the line of Antoninus's in all probability are equally enumerated in the same direction, and Glannibanta is Rough-castle, Alione Castlecary, Bremetenracum Barhill, Olenacum Bemulie, and Virofidum New Kirkpatrick".

But the main body of the troops was now stationed along the line of Severus's wall and the range of the eastern coast. The latter was guarded by ten stations or castles, reaching from Yorkshire into Suffex". The former was raised twelve Roman feet in height and eight Roman feet in thickness, was strengthened with various turrets, and was secured by eighteen forts". And in one of these forts, Vindebala or Rutchester, the old garrison of our Castle-field, the first cohort of the Frieslanders, was now settled by the Romans".

This grand alteration in the number and in the disposition of the Roman troops within the island must certainly have been the occasion of the great invasion which was made at this period from Ireland. The first naval invasion of the provinces that had been attempted from Ireland, it must have resulted from some particular circumstances in the interior condition of Britain, and from some very inviting change in the state of the western

western coast. And nothing less could have been the cause of so remarkable an invasion than the equally remarkable revolution in the interior history of Britain, the general desertion of the stationary lines, and the general retirement of the troops from the western counties. By the new arrangement of the forces, the whole western extent of the island from the south of West-moteland to the shore of Cornwall was left exposed and defenceless. Had the Irish insulted the western coast with any armament before, the Romans would certainly have left some forces encamped upon it at present. And therefore, if the Romans had not withdrawn all the stationary garrisons from the coast, the Irish would certainly not have insulted it now. But, apprized of the new military arrangements, willing to make a diversion for their brethren of Caledonia, and stimulated with the inviting prospect of plunder and conquest, they resolved upon an invasion of the whole western shore of England.

This invasion was certainly made in the year 395. It was made and repelled after the death of Theodosius in the January of 395, and during the minority of Honorius and the regency of Stilicho. It was made and repelled one hundred and forty-six years before Maelgun Guinedh began to reign over the Ordovices; and the commencement of his reign was certainly before the death of Arthur and the year 542. The former date reduces the fact to the year 395 or some immediately succeeding one. And the latter date carries it back to the year 395 in particular, the commencement of Maelgun's reign being to be reckoned from 541 at the lowest, and the deduction of one hundred and forty-six from five hundred and forty-one leaving us precisely three hundred and ninety-five.

Neil Na-Gaillac was now monarch of the Irish, the Neal or chief of the Gaelick or Gauls. He raised the whole united power of the island, and embarked them upon his small craft. The British sea-boats were furnished with masts and sails. But they were frequently worked with oars, the rowers singing to the chime of their oars and the music of the harp. And

the admiral's ship carried a shield fastened high upon the mast, which was a sufficient mark of itself in the day, and which was frequently beat upon as a signal in the night; the whole fleet steering by the stars, and the boats being drawn upon the beach at landing ⁴¹. Thus equipped, the Irish ranged with their numerous navy along the whole coast of Lancashire, landed in the Isle of Man, and reduced it ⁴². They made a descent upon North-Wales, and subdued a considerable extent of the country. They disembarked a body of their troops in the regions of the Dimetæ, and conquered the greatest part of their dominions ⁴³. And they afterwards extended their ravages to the southern channel ⁴⁴. This unexpected invasion however was soon afterwards repelled. As in so critical a period the troops in the east and north could not be ordered away to the western shore, other forces were sent over by Stilicho ⁴⁵, and were joined by a considerable body of the provincials, legionary citizens and original Britons without doubt, under the command of Cunedag the monarch of the Otadini ⁴⁶. The Scots were attacked, were defeated, and were driven to their ships, with so great a carnage, that they never afterwards attempted any descents of conquest upon our western coast ⁴⁷.

But the period was now not very remote, in which the Roman empire, having done the great work for which it was erected by Providence, having long connected the central nations of the globe with a chain of amity, was absolutely to be demolished for ever. The period was now hastily approaching, in which the Divinity, who had already converted to Christianity all the nations that lay within the pale of the Roman empire, designed to bring the uncivilized nations of Europe into the one in order to convert them to the other. The period was now actually arrived, in which the miseries that had been so wantonly scattered over half the globe by the Romans were now to be severely retorted upon them. God summoned the savage nations of the North to come and erase the mighty structure of their empire, and to avenge the injuries of the oppressed nations around them. The

Roman

Roman legionaries, once the invincible of the earth, now retired upon every side towards the heart of the empire. Rome, once the tyrant of the world, daily shrunk into herself, contracting the dimensions of her territories, and losing the formidableness of her name. And in this awful crisis the Roman soldiers finally deserted the isle of Britain, in the year of the Christian æra 446¹, five hundred and one years after their first descent upon the island, four hundred and three after their first settlement in the country, and three hundred and sixty-seven after their first entrance into Lancashire².

¹ S. J.—² See b. I. ch. ii. f. 2. and ch. vi. f. 4.—³ Ch. ii. f. 2.—
⁴ Chap. vi. f. 4.—⁵ Notitia.—⁶ Ibid. So the Saxons were called Satenach and Savenach by the Irish, the Sifuntii were called Sifuntiaci, the Britanni Britannici, Poeni Punici, and Morini Aremoriai.— Tacitus Ann. lib. xii. c. 31, Richard p. 26, Baxter in Antona, Camden c. 515, Gale's Essay in Leland's Itin. vol. vi. p. 143. edit. 1769, and Itin. Cur. p. 35.—⁷ Horfeley p. 98, compared with p. 158.—⁸ Agric. Vit. c. 23.—⁹ Tacitus Hist. lib. i. c. 2. Perdomita *Britannia & statim amissa*; Spartian c. 5. of Hadrian; *Britanni teneri sub Romanâ ditione non poterant &c.*; and Richard p. 59. Sub quo [Trebellio] duce provinciæ, Vespasiana scilicet & Mæata [or Valentia p. 28], fractæ sunt,—*Circa idem tempus insulam hancce visitans Hadrianus &c.*—¹⁰ The forts betwixt the Friths have been twice as close as the stations along the wall of Severus (Horfeley p. 173); and Spartian c. 11. Primus.—¹¹ Ἀπεβέβηθε δὲ καὶ τῶν ἐν Βρεταννίᾳ Βριγάντων τὴν πολλήν, ὃν ΕΠΕΣΒΑΙΝΕΥΝ καὶ εἴη συν τοῖς οπλοῖς ἤρξαν τὴν Γενναίαν μοῖραν, ὑπηκοῦς Ῥωμαίων (Pausanias Arcad. lib. viii. p. 689. Lipsæ 1696) These words have been applied to the Brigantes of Maxima (Horfeley, Camden, &c.), and to the Selgovæ and others of Valentia (Carte); but can suit neither of them. The Brigantes of Maxima had had all their land conquered or taken from them before. The Brigantes of Valentia had either had

all theirs taken from them before or had it all taken now. The Brigantes of Caledonia, they, and they alone, suffered a diminution of their territories at this period. And they lost *την πολλήν*, the whole of Vespasiana. And accordingly Lollius is declared by Richard to have recovered Valentia from the Britons (p. 59).

" See Carte p. 130, the only person that settled Genounia right. So on one of Cunobeline's Coins class 4. N° 2. we have Novanei for Novantes, and in Ptolemy Tri-noantes for Trinovantes. Nou, a New-comer, makes Nou-en, Nou-an, or Nou-ant in the plural.—¹⁴ Capitolinus c. 5. of Antoninus Pius.—¹⁵ Spartian in

Severus c. 22.—¹⁶ So also Netherby in Valentia was certainly a Roman station during the reign of Hadrian (Horsley p. 27).—

¹⁷ Herodian lib. iii. c. 48. *Χαμάρα*. —¹⁸ Antonini Iter 1, and Richard p. 53, 29.—¹⁹ Notitia reckons Valentia as one of the five

provinces that were then subject to the Vicar of Britain; and Gildas c. 15. Murotenus.—²⁰ Gildas c. 13 and 15. —²¹ Richard

p. 17.—²² Ossian vol. i. p. 95. This Caros king of ships is idly supposed by Macpherson to be the famous Carausius. But how

could Oscar attack Carausius in 287, or rather in 290, and Fingal, who opposed Caracalla in 211, be afterwards able to fight

Cathmor (vol. ii. p. 8, &c.)? Fingal must have been then near an hundred years of age. As Oscar died young, he was prob-

ably about twenty at the period of this attack; and if we allow his father to be twenty at the birth of him, we come to the year

260 or thereabouts.—²³ Gildas c. 11, 13, and 15. Gildas begins these ravages from 383 or the passage of Maximus into Gaul.—

²⁴ Gildas c. 15.—²⁵ Horsley N°. 95, of Northumberland.—²⁶ B. I. ch. vii and ix.—²⁷ Ch. vii.—²⁸ Notitia.—²⁹ Ibid.—³⁰ Gordon's Iter

Septen. p. 43, 54, 57, and 59, and Horsley p. 169 and 198 and 170.—³¹ Horsley p. 110.—³² If the Glannoventa of Antoninus

(Iter 10.) be not different from the Glannibanta of the Notitia, as the Alone of the one (Iter 10.) is certainly evinced by its

distance of thirty itinerary miles from Glannoventa to be very different from the Alone of the other, the tenth Iter of Anto-

ninus must issue from the eastern end of the Wall, as the first
of

of Antoninus and the fifth of Richard commence from the western, and must probably be as much maimed at the beginning as the first. This route would carry the road in a straight direction from north-east to south-west, and not in so strange a course as Mr. Horsley has given it, first tending to the north-west to Old Town, then turning nearly west to Whitley Castle, and then, and not before, proceeding to the south-west. And this would carry it (I apprehend) nearly by Peebles to Appleby, leaving Whitley-Castle a little distant on the left, and pointing directly into Lancashire and Cheshire. — " Notitia. — " Richard p. 28, and Notitia. — See Bede Eccl. Hist. lib. i. c. 12. — " Notitia, and Horsley p. 105. Some of the thirteen interior stations were most probably in Valentia. — " Notitia. — " Nennius p. 142 (Bertram), Ad habitandum. — " Claudian de Laud. Stil. l. ii. — *Me me juvit Stilicho.* — " Nennius p. 142. — See a mistake therefore in Carte p. 213, a Note. — " The Triades in Carte p. 213; and Vaughan's Chron. in Carte p. 202. — " Carte p. 175. — " See Nobilis in Llhyud. And so Scor-na-Fina, Scor-na-Kerri, &c. — " Claudian de L. Stil. l. ii. — *Totam cum movit Iernem Scotus, & infesto spumavit remige Thetys.* — " Claudian. *ibid.*; and Ossian p. 84. vol. i. — " P. 162 and 66. vol. ii. and p. 75. vol. i. — " Nennius p. 102 and 142, Eubonia; and see c. ii. Nennius. — " Nennius *ibid.* — " Carte p. 169, from the Lives of the Irish Saints. — " Claudian *ibid.* — " Nennius p. 102 and 142, regione Manau Guotadin. — " Nennius p. 142, ab omnibus regionibus Britannicis. — " See b. II. c. i. f. 2. — " Having now deduced the history to the final departure of the Romans, and now losing the useful assistance of Richard, it may be proper to note some little mistakes into which this well-informed antiquarian has fallen, and which I have not mentioned before. Thus p. 28 he places the *Mæatæ* in Valentia, whom I have shewn to have inhabited Vespasiana. Thus p. 50 he calls Divitiacus the King of the *Ædui*, when he was King of the Sueffiones. Thus p. 52 he calls London a colony in the days of Boadicia, when Tacitus expressly declares it not to have been a colony. And thus p. 52 he

he makes Agricola to have subdued the Orcades, which were not then inhabited (Solinus c. 22.).

It may be proper at this the close of the Roman account to point out such variations from any part of the preceding history as appear in our two best historians, the faithful heavy and accurate Mr. Carte, and the more superficial more agreeable and ever sentimental Mr. Hume. To point out the mistakes, is a justice due to history and myself. To point them out with friendliness and candor, is a justice due to humanity and to literature. And to have mentioned them before would have embarrassed the page, already loaded sufficiently for the sake of authenticity, with an additional number of references and notes.

HUME, vol. I. quarto.

P. 2. — Cæsar says that the Maritima Pars of all the southern coast of the island, opposed to the Pars Interior or the more northerly and inland regions, was acquainted with tillage: Mr. Hume has unjustly confined this knowledge “to the south-east parts of the island.” And *Interiores plerique*; says Cæsar, not all, but most of them; “the other inhabitants,” says Mr. Hume without any restriction; maintained themselves by pasturage.

—Cæsar speaks of the island at large, *Hominum infinita multitudo*. Mr. Hume confines the words “to the south-east parts” again.

—“The British governments, though monarchical, were free,” and Diodorus lib. iv, Mela lib. iii. c. 6, and Strabo lib. iv. are quoted to prove it. “And the common people seem to have enjoyed more liberty among them than among the nations of Gaul,” and Dio l. 75. is cited as authority for it. The monarchical nature of the government is all that is asserted by the three first-cited writers. And the *δημοκρατία* of Dio, which is spoken particularly of the Caledonians, I have already shewn to have been a mistake, and may be further shewn by Martial’s two lines,

Turpes,

“ Turpes, humiles, supplicesque;

• Pictorum sola bafiate Regum. Lib. x. Ep. 72.

And if Dio's expreffion could prove any thing, it muft prove, not the freedom of the monarchical government, but the exiftence of a popular. But indeed fuch ftrokes as thefe muft be ever expected in the prefent period, the well-meaning though impertinent language of the times, in which antient hiftory is drefled up à l'Angleterre, and Truth is facrificed at the fhrine of Liberty.

P. 5.—The Attrebates, whom I have fhewn to have refided in the north of Berkfhire and to have been native Britons, are planted by Mr. Hume “ in the fouth-eaft” of the ifland, and are reckoned among the Belgæ or cultivated inhabitants.

—The Silures, who inhabited Hereford Radnor and Monmouth counties, are faid by Mr. Hume merely to inhabit the banks of the Severne.

P. 6.—“ London” (in the days of Boadicia) “ already a flourishing Roman colony.” It was at this period no colony at all.

—The feventy thoufand men whom Boadicia maffacred in Camalodunum Verulamium and Londinium are all butchered by Mr. Hume “ in London.” Thefe confifted of Romans and Socii, the Belgæ in alliance with them. But Mr. Hume calls them the Romans and “ Strangers.”

P. 7.—“ Agricola drew a rampart between the friths of Forth “ and Cluyd.” He only carried a line of forts acrofs the ifthmus.

—“ Caledonia was defended by its barren mountains and “ by the contempt which the Romans entertained of it.” Be witnefs the attempts of Agricola of Lollius and of Severus to fubdue it.

—“ Lollius repaired the rampart of Agricola.” He united the old forts by a new rampart.

—“ Severus added new fortifications to the wall of Hadrian.” Hadrian's wall was of earth, Severus's of ftone. They were

therefore very different constructions, though nearly in the same line.

—"The natives were disarmed." See the falsity of this before.

P. 8.—"The Picts seem to have been a tribe of the native British race, who, having been chased into the northern parts by the conquests of Agricola, had there intermingled with the antient inhabitants." What a medley of mistakes! The Picts were certainly of the native British race. They had not been chased into the north by the conquests of Agricola. They were themselves the antient inhabitants.

Mr. Hume gliding over these parts of his history in an hasty superficial manner, so as scarcely to give us any real information concerning the interior state of the island during the whole Roman period, he could not possibly fall into so many mistakes as must unavoidably attend a minute and particular detail of them. Such is Mr. Carte's.

CARTE vol. I.

P. 15—22.—Britain is supposed by Mr. Carte to be first planted in the reign of Pluto or of Mercury and about two thousand years before Christ. But the series of his own History pretty plainly opposes it, which fixes the first migrations of the Celtæ of which we can settle the period, migrations occasioned by populousness, not till nearly fifteen hundred years after the supposed population of Britain (p. 22). And indeed the history of the population of England, and particularly of Ireland, evinces the island not to have been inhabited till about a thousand years before Christ.

P. 22.—The Belgæ came into Gaul (says Mr. Carte) about one hundred and thirty years before Christ. They came even into Britain about three hundred and fifty before Christ.

P. 24.—"The Britons in all probability received the Belgæ friendly." See Richard for the contrary, and indeed Cæsar.

—"Devonshire and Cornwalle were all in a manner a wild forest at the coming of the Belgæ, as they continued to be in a great degree till one hundred and fifty years after the Conquest.

"Somerset.

“ Somersetshire was the same for the most part. And Dorsetshire too was full of the like forests. And in these counties seem to have been the parts where the Belgæ first settled.”—All this is certainly false. The southern coast of the island must naturally have been the best-inhabited of any. And the islands of Cornwall actually carried on a commerce with the Phœnicians before the Belgæ arrived. Devonshire Cornwall Dorsetshire and Somersetshire were inhabited by no less than five tribes, and were planted with many towns, of the Britons before the Romans came, and had all a considerable number of modern towns after they came. And if these counties were full of forests before the Belgæ came, and even remained so afterwards, the settlements of the Belgæ must have very little affected the condition of the country. But as the Belgæ settled, not merely in these counties, but all along the southern coast (see Cæsar), so they carried on a great trade from Hampshire and the Isle of Wight.

P. 25.—“ The Belgæ had been used to live, not, like the Brigantes [or native Britons], in woods, but—in towns and villages; and—cities and towns now began to be built by the Belgæ.”—But see Cæsar’s and Dio’s account of the British town which Cæsar stormed among the Belgæ of Kent, and compare them with Cæsar’s account of Cassivelaun’s town among the old Britons and his general description of the British towns, and they will all be found to be the same.

—“ The Belgæ of Kent, not mixing with the Britons, as the others seem to have done, formed a distinct people—and were called Nouantæ or new inhabitants.”—The Nouantæ are the inhabitants, not of Kent, but of Essex, in Ptolemy, and of Essex and Middlesex in Richard.

—These Nouantæ were “ called also Nou-cantæ, and the Forc-land of Kent was called from them Noucantium by Ptolemy.”—The people are nowhere called Nou-cantæ; and the promontory is called by Ptolemy, not Noucantium, but Acantion or Cantion, Promontory or The Promontory.

P. 26.—The true [or continental] Belgæ are said by Mr. Carte to have had no manner of taste for trade. But p. 25. *commerce* and husbandry are said to have been the chief employment of the [British] Belgæ in Gaul.—How unguarded and contradictory!

—“ Divitiacus brought with him the Bibroci and the Attrebates.” These were tribes of old Britons.—“ He reduced chiefly Berkshire and Oxfordshire.” He reduced neither.—“ He planted the Bibroci and Attrebates in Berks and Oxfordshire.” These never had any connection with Oxfordshire. “ The scene of his conquests lay in the south-east of Somerset and in the west of Sussex, whence he expelled the Regni, and where he settled his Belgæ.” His conquests in Somersetshire must have been over the Hædui in the north; and the Regni, not merely of the west of Sussex, but of all of it, were actually Belgæ.

P. 27.—“ It is probable, that Divitiacus subdued a good part of the Iceni.”—He certainly did not. See ch. v. sect. 3. before.

—“ In the war of the Britons upon the Belgæ the Attrebates suffered much from the former.” Impossible, as the Attrebates were Britons,

P. 43.—“ Gildas informs us, that the Britons *in his time* had very ill-favoured statues, and paid divine honours to mountains, hills, and rivers.”—Gildas speaks not of his own times, but of the period preceding the introduction of Christianity, and only says that these monuments remained in some places to his own age. See c. 2.

—P. 77.—“ Colonies, from a corruption of which word that of Clan is derived.”—How is this possible! How could the British appellation of Clan, an appellation retained only by the unconquered regions of Caledonia and Ireland, be derived to them from the Romans! Clan indeed is a word absolutely British in its origin. It has no relation to the word Colony either in its origin or in its import. It signifies only a progeny or family.

P. 91. — “Cingetorix and Taximagulus, two Kentish potentates, Carvilius chief of the Carvili in Wilts, and Segonax prince of the Segontiaci in Hampshire.” — The making Carvilius chief of the Carvili, a tribe existing only in fancy, and Segonax prince of the Segontiaci, a tribe much too remote to be concerned in an attack upon Cæsar’s naval camp, is borrowed from the very fanciful frequently ingenious but generally mistaken Baxter. And Stukeley in his Stonchenge has adopted the same wild fancy. But Cæsar expressly declares them all to have been of Kent,—Cantium—quibus regionibus iv reges præerant (p. 92).•

P. 91, 98, 100, 104, 114, and 119.—Great mistakes concerning the position of the British tribes.

P. 103 — “In all the territories of the Damronii no Roman stations.” — There were Isca Damnoniorum, Cenia, Voluba, Durius Amnis, and Tamara, which Ptolemy and the Itineraries mention, besides various others without question of which we have no account.

P. 128.—“Hadrian withdrew the garrisons from the north of his own wall.” — How unjust this assertion is, the present chapter sufficiently shews.

ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS.

P. 18. at the end of Note " add this remark.—These stone-instruments have been sometimes supposed by the learned to be merely domestic or sacrificial implements. Domestic implements, but not sacrificial, were undoubtedly repositied in the British sepulchers, as in the barrows upon Salisbury Plain have been found beads and other personal decorations of the deceased (see b. I. ch. x. f. 5). The favourite implements of the dead were interred with them (ibid.). And therefore in all unlettered uncommercial ages, when the wild unengaged activity of man ever carries a keen and military edge with it, and when the great employ of man must necessarily be war and the chase, the weapons of war must have been almost universally repositied with the dead. And we have a striking passage of scripture to this purpose, which has never been noticed by the critics, and which shews the custom to have been as general as the spirit of ambition or the profession of arms. Ezekiel, prophetically exulting over the fallen armies of the Egyptians the Persians and other neighbouring nations, cries out " They shall not lie with the mighty, that are fallen
 " of the uncircumcised, *which are gone down to hell with their*
 " *weapons of war*, and they have laid their swords under their
 " *heads.*" Ch. xxxii. ver. 27.

P. 18. at the close of note " subjoin this remark.—The great weight of these instruments has been a familiar objection against the military application of them. But the objection proceeds upon a false estimate concerning the powers of the human body. It takes not in those additional powers of vigour and agility which the body naturally acquires in the habitual use of the heaviest armour. And the objector may only be remitted for a sufficient answer to the ponderous mails of our ancestors in the Tower of London. He may there reflect at his leisure, whether he could possibly march and countermarch with such an heavy incum-

brance about him, as our fathers are well known to have done even within these two hundred years and even in the deep and foundeulous roads of our island at that period. With an original vigour of body no greater than what they have transmitted to their sons, our ancestors obtained from practice what nothing but practice could confer, and what an equal practice would equally confer upon their descendants.

P. 28. line 10. for, b. I. ch. x. p. 3, read, b. I. ch. x. f. 3.

P. 38. at the end of Note ⁶ add this — And even the great wall of Severus in the North appears to have been constructed upon the same principles, in a part of the wall that has been opened upon Wall-fell near St. Osvald's the lower courses being discovered to be laid in clay, and the upper appearing to be cemented with mortar (see the Map prefixed to Warburton's *Vallum Romanum*).

P. 53. line 25. for, a *copy* of the handwriting, read, a *specimen* of the handwriting.

P. 92. l. 30. for, Itin. Cur. p. 108, read, Itin. Cur. p. 105.

P. 93. at the end of Note ¹⁰ add — The name of Camulus then is a Celtic appellation for Mars. And such also is Belatucadrus. The late learned Bishop Lyttelton indeed, in an Essay published this winter by the Antiquarian Society, has endeavoured to shew Belatucadrus to be either a local deity in general or another name for Belenus, Apollo, in particular (*Archæologia* vol. i. p. 308—311). And an inscription in Horsey, which is expressly Deo Marti Belatucadro, directly confronting the course of his Lordship's argument, he is obliged to suppose with Dr. Ward, that something has been lost in the inscription, and that it originally ran Deo Marti ET Belatucado. But such suppositions are surely very frivolous in their nature, the poor refuge of systematic prejudices, and an involuntary acknowledgment of the point opposed. Belatucadrus is plainly from its natural import, Bel At Y Cadr or the King of the Fortress, the British appellation for the God of Battles. And the actual addition of Marti to Belatucadro in the Roman-British inscription demonstratively proves it. His Lordship and the Doctor however affirm, that the epithet

epithet of Sanctus, which is given to Belatucader in another inscription, is nowhere attributed to Mars (p. 310 and 311). This, if the assertion was true, would be of no consequence at all in the argument. The epithet might be attributed upon one monument, and yet might not appear upon others. But the assertion is not true. And the fact is as much against them in this point as the reason was in the other. We have actually in Gruter an inscription to Mars, under the title of Camulus, with the character of sanctity expressly attributed to him, Camulo Sanct. Fortissimo (p. 56. and see also Camden in Camulodunum). And the attributes of the Gods among the heathens appear from their inscriptions to have been assigned to them by their votaries with a most promiscuous and indiscriminate liberality.

P. 180. note 1. for, see b. I. h. i. l. 3. Note, read, b. II. &c.

P. 237. l. 39. for, 'The Siftuntian, read, The Siftuntians.

P. 359. l. 25. for, The houses of many of the towns of Italy, read, The houses in many &c.

P. 398. l. 1. for, Divinity at the head of the creation, eternal in duration, read, Divinity at the head of the creation, a nature eternal &c.

P. 399. l. 9. for, administer *real* comfort, read, administer *rational* comfort.

P. 407. l. 35. for, the Romans being *denominated* as, read, the Romans being *enumerated* as.

P. 442. l. 14. for, stretched along the back, read, stretched along the back.

THE CONCLUSION.

WE have now pursued the History of Manchester to that great important epocha in the annals of the island, the consolidation of its five provinces into one empire, and the descent of the Saxons on the whole. We have seen the extensive circuit of the parish of Manchester one wild unfrequented range of woodland, inhabited only by the boar the bull and the wolf, the hereditary proprietors of this sylvan domain, and traversed only by the hunters of the neighbouring country in their occasional pursuits after them. We have seen the shades of this Arden selected by the monarch of Lancashire for the seat of a station in the woods, and a station actually planted in the center of it. This was the first early period of the population of the parish. This was the first early commencement of a town within it. The rude outlines of a town began, the faint principle of population commenced, about fifty years before the Christian æra, and within the compass of the Castle-field. And the Forest of Arden assumed a new life and colouring from it. The death-like silence and the dread solitude that had regularly prevailed before were now greatly interrupted by the occasional resort of soldiers to the fortress of Mancenion, by the occasional excursions of hunters from the Castle-field, and by the hollow hum and the dying murmurs of the garrison regularly conversing at the center on the banks of the Medlock. But that warlike tribe of Latium which from a little assemblage of outlaws on the heights of the Tiber had amazingly become the lords of Italy, the masters of Gaul, and the conquerors of half the globe, now land upon

THE CONCLUSION.

v

upon the island, reduce the reluctant tribes of the Britons, and advance into Lancashire. They penetrate into the woods of our Arden. They first introduce the hostilities of war into the parish. They take Mancenion. A new spirit and an additional vigour now actuates the woodland. A regular fortress is constructed upon the Castle-field. A regular fortress is constructed equally about a mile to the north of it. And the site of the present town is now first cleared in part of its primitive oaks, and now first receives a colony of inhabitants upon it, a colony only transitory in its nature and existing only during the continuance of the summer. The most north-westerly part of the forest is appropriated to the feeding of the Roman cattle, and four little fortresses are planted for their protection within it. The whole forest is intersected with large broad roads on every side, all ranging in right lines through the thickets, and all converging to one common point at the Castle-field. And what compleats the great change in the general aspect of the parish, a regular town is now laid out in the bosom of the forest, a regular town is now actually constructed near the Castle-field, and a neighbouring baron and his clan are now actually settled within it. This is the first immediate commencement of a town within the circuit of the parish, in the ever-memorable autumn of 79. And the fortress in the Castle-field becomes the citadel of the adjoining borough. Beneath the happy auspices of the Roman genius in Britain, that living principle of population which had faintly quickened before at the center of the forest now becomes active and vigorous, and diffuses its influence on every side. The beasts are dislodged to a greater distance from Mancunium. The receding forest curves in an ample amphitheater of woods around it. And all the mechanical arts are successfully transplanted into the wilds of our Arden. Civility literature and politeness follow. And Christianity closes the rear.

But a new scene of sorrow arises. A new invasion is meditated from the continent. A tribe of idolatrous savages is hastening from the shores of Germany. Ruin marks their advance. Ignorance incivility and barbarism attend upon them. And the fall
of

of Manchester approaches. The brief history of a town, the comprehensive history of a nation, the general history of man, are all of them the records of human calamities and the registers of human woes, of calamities which are generally provoked by vices, and of woes which are naturally productive of virtues, reinvigorating by the task of trials that tone of the human mind which was previously debilitated by inactivity, and by forceable appeals to the native thoughtfulness of the human soul asserting those powers of religion which were previously sinking in the sensualities of peace. The convulsions of nature and the enormities of man, the war of elements and the subversion of empires, are all finely directed by the controuling influence of Divinity to the great purposes of supporting the moral interests of the world, and of impressing the heart with the awful truths of religion.

THE END OF BOOK THE FIRST.

APPEN-

A P P E N D I X.

N^O I.

I Have here subjoined what I have frequently referred to in the work, the Itinerary of Ricardus Corinensis. Such a curiosity ought no longer to be locked up in the few copies of Dr. Stukeley's Comment or the fewer of Mr. Bertram's original. To this I have added the parallel parts of Antonine's Itinerary, that the one may reflect a light upon the other. And to the whole I have annexed the modern places correspondent to each ancient name, as they are assigned by Gale by Horteley and by Stukeley.

*P p p

D I A-

D I A P H R A G M A T A

I T E R I.

À BIIUTPI VIA DUCTA EST GUETHIELINGA DICTA
USQUE IN SEGONTIUM PER M. P. 324. PLUS MINUS
SIC.

			Antoninus
			Iter 2 inverted
	CANTIOPOLIS quæ et DUROVERNO		Duroverno 10
Iter 15 Ricardi		m. p. 10	
Durolevum	DUROSLVO ———	12	Durolevo 10
Durobrovæ	DUROPROVIS ———	25	Durobrovis 10
	DEINDE ———	m. p. 27	
	TRANSIS THAMESIN INTRASQUE PROVINCIAM FLAVIAM ET CIVITATEM LONDINIUM AU- GUSTAM		Iter 3 inverted from Duro- brovis to Londinium 27
Dr. Stukeley's Copy			Iter 2 inv.
Sulloniagis	SULO MAGO ———	m. p. 9	Sullennacis 12
	VEROLAMIO MUNICIPIO ¹	12	Verolamio 9
	FORO DIANÆ ⁴ ———	12	Durocobravis ⁴ 12
	MAGIO VINIO ———	12	Magiovinio 12
	LACTORODO ———	12	Lactodoro 12

¹ The Itinera are so called from their similitude to the animal midriff, which passes through the body from side to side (Stukeley).

² This number appears from the distances preceding and following to be faulty. Antonine's must be the right number.

⁴ In this and one or two other places I have omitted the notices concerning martyrs, the impertinent interpolations of the Monk.

CASTE	HORSELEY	STUKFLEY
Canterbury	Canterbury	Canterbury
Lenham	Milton	Sittingburne
Rochester	Rochester	Rocheiler
London	London	London
Shenley near Brockley Hills	Brockley Hills	Edgeware near Brockley Hills
Verulam	Verulam	Verulam
Hertford	Dunstable	Market-street near Dunstable
Dunstable	Fenny Stratford	Dunstable
Stony Stratford	Towcester	Stony Stratford

* Durocobravis, a name which has been long wrested by the antiquarians into Duroc-cob-ravis, and to signify the Ford of the Red Water, and which has therefore been idly fixed at Redburne and Hertford (supposed to be He-rud-ford), is really nothing more than Duroc-o-bravis and signifies nothing more than a watery town, just as Dur-o-bravis and Ebur-ac um. And Redburne is absolutely Red Bourne or the brook Read.

Iter 18 inv. Mannavaria		ISANTA VARIA	—	12	Antoninus. Bennavenna (Iter 6. Itanavatia) 12
					Iter 6
Tripontio	12	TRICENTIO	—	12	Tripontio 12
Benoni's	11	BENONIS	—	9	Venonis 9
<p>HIC BISECATUR VIA; ALTER— UTERUMQUE EJUS BRACHIUM LINDUM USQUE¹, ALTRUM VERSUS VIRICONIUM, PRO- TENDITUR SIC.</p>					
Iter 18 inv. Manduesedo	12	MANDUESEDO	—	m. p. 12	Iter 2 inv. Manduesedo 12
Etoceto	16	ETOCETO	—	13	Etoceto 16
		PENNOCRUCIO	—	12	Pennocrucio 12
		UXACONIA	—	12	Uxaconia 12
		VIRIOCONIO	—	11	Urioconio 11
					— — — — —
		BANCHORIO ²	—	26	Bovium
		DEVA COLONIA	—	10	Deva Leg. 20 Vict. 10

¹ This road, the eastern branch of the fosseway, the second Iter of Antonine pursues.

² The etymology of this name is strangely mistaken by Baxter. In the laws of Howel

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Castle Dykes near Wedon	Near Daventry	Towcester
Dowbridge near Lilburne	Bugby	Dowbridge or Showel
High Crofs or Claychester	Claychester	Claychester or High Crofs
Manccfter	Manccfter	Manccfter
Wall near Litchfield	Wall	Wall
Stretton near Penkridge	Near the river Penk	Penkridge
Oken-yate	Near Sheriff-Hales	Oken-yate
Wroxeter	Wroxeter	Wroxeter
Banchor	Near Stretton in Cheshire	Banchor
Chefter	Chefter	Chefter

Dha it carries a sense which is undoubtedly the meaning of this appellation. It signifies a Fortification. See A. 37. p. 398. Wotton.

FINES FLAVIÆ ET SECUNDÆ				Antoninus
				Iter ⁱⁱ inv.
VARIS	—	m. p.	30	Varis 32
CONOVIO	—		20	Conovio 19
SEGUNTIO	—	—	24	Segontio 24

* The sum total at the end is just ten more than the number provided, the latter being three hundred and twenty-four and the former three hundred and thirty-four. The nine or ten additional miles in the faulty number annexed to Diocletian's account for the difference.

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Bodvary	Bodvary	Bodvary
Caer Rhun	Caer Rhun	Caer Rhun
Caer Segont near Caernarvon	Caer Segont	Caer Segont

A P P E N D I X.

I T E R II.

Antoninus

A SEGUNTIO VIRIOCONIUM
USQUE m. p. 73, SIC.

HERIRI MONTE ——— m. p. 25

Iter 2.

MEDIOI. ANO ——— 25

Mediolano

RUTUNIO ——— 12

Rutunio 12

VIRIOCONIO ——— 11

Virioconio 11

GALI	HORSELEY.	STUKELEY
<p>Meivod North-Wales</p> <p>Rowton Castle</p> <p>Wroxeter</p>	<p>Draiton Shropshire</p> <p>Near Wem</p> <p>Wroxeter</p>	<p>Raranvaur Hill by Bala in Merionethshire</p> <p>Meivod Montgomery- shire</p> <p>Rowton</p> <p>Wroxeter</p>

I T E R I I I .			Antoninus
A L O N D I N I O L I N D U M C O L O - N I A M U S Q U E , S I C .			
			Iter 9 inv.
D U R O S I T O	— — —	12	Durolitum 15
C Æ S A R O M A G O	— — —	16	Cæsaromago 16
C A N O N I O	— — —	15	Canonia 12
C A M A L O D U N O C O L O N I A	—	9	Camaloduno 9
I B I E R A T T E M P L U M C L A U D I I , A R X T R I U M P H A L I S , E T I M A - G O V I C T O R I Æ D E Æ ¹ .			
A D S T U R I U M A M N E M	m. p.	6	Ad Anſam 6
E T F I N I B U S T R I N O B A N T U M C E N I M A N N O S A D V E N I S .			
C O M B R E T O N I O	— — —	m. p. 15	Combretonio 15
S I T O M A G O	— — —	22	Sitomago 22
V E N T A C E N O M	— — —	23	Venta Icenorum 31

¹ This Note muſt have been copied by Richard from ſome account that was previous to the deſtruction of Camalodunum by Boadicia.

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Leighton-stone.	Leighton-stone	Rumford
Writtle or Witham	Near Chelmsford	Chelmsford
Little Canfield.	Fambridge	Kelvedon Essex
Walden	Malden	Colchester
Barklew or near Ha- verill	Witham	Stretford-street, Suffolk
Brettenham	Stretford	Brettenham, Bradfield Combuft, Suffolk
Thetford or Wulpitt*	Wulpitt	Thetford Norfolk
Caster near Norwich	Caster	Caster

				Antoninus Iter 5
	ICIANIS	— — — — —	m. p. 27	Icianos
	CAMBORICO COLONIA	— — — — —	20	Camborico 35
Iter 17. Duroliſponte	DURALI PONTE	— — — — —	20	Duroliſponte 25
Durnomago	DURNO MAGO	— — — — —	20	Durobrovis 35
m. p. 30 Corifennis 30	ISINNIS	— — — — —	20	Caufennis 30
Lindo — 30	LINDO	— — — — —	20	Lindo 26

* As ſeveral differences occur in the copies which were publiſhed by Dr. Stukeley and Mr. Bertram, which I ſhall regularly note, ſo this is one. Icianos has only a vacancy in Bertram, but is actually inſerted in Stukeley. And the latter is evidently right.

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Ickburrow	Chesterford	Jxworth, Icklingham
Near Cambrige	Icklingham	Chesterford Cambridge- shire
Godmanchester	Cambridge	Godmanchester
Brig Casterton	• Caster by Peterborough	Caster
Nottingham	Ancafter	Stanfield by Bourn, Lincolnshire
Lincoln	• Lincoln	Lincoln.

I T E R I V.			Antoninus.
A LINDO AD VALLUM US- QUE, SIC.			
			Iter 5
ARGOLICO	—	m. p. 14	Segelocum (Iter 8 Agelocum) 14
DANO	— —	m. p. 20	Danum — 21
IBI INTRAS MAXIMAM CÆSA- RIENSEM.			
Iter 18 Legiolium Iter 5 inv. and Iter 8. from York	LEGOTIO	— m. p. 16	Legeolium (Iter 8. Lagecium) 16
	EBURACO MUNICIP. OLIM COLONIA SEXTA	— 21	Eburacum 21
Catarractoni 40 }	ISURIO	— 16	Isūbrigantum 17
	CATARRACTONI	— 24	Catarractoni 24
	AD TISAM	— 10	— — —
	VINOVIO	— — 19	Iter 1 inv. Vinovia 22
	EPIACO	— — 19	— — —
	AD MURUM	— 9	— — —

* This Note must have been interpolated by Richard.

APPENDIX

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GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Little-Burrow	Littleburrow	Littleburrow
Doncafter	Doncafter	Doncafter
Castleford	Castleford	Castleford
York	York	York
Aldborough	Aldborough	Aldborough
Cattarick	Cattarick	Cattarick
— — —	— — —	Pierce Bridge, Ovyntord
Bincheſter	Bincheſter	Bincheſter
— — —	Hexham	Cheſter in the Street
— — —	— — —	Newcaſtle

TRANS

TRANS MURUM INTRAS VA- LENTIAM			Antoninus	
ALAUNA AMNE	m. p.	25	—	—
TURDA FLUMINE	—	30	—	—
AD VALLUN	—	m. p. ¹ 70	—	—

¹ Dr. Stukeley gives us the numerals which Mr. Bertam has omitted.

A P P E N D I X.

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GALE			HORSELEY			STUKELEY
—	—	—	—	—	—	Alnwick Northumbér-
—	—	—	—	—	—	land
—	—	—	—	—	—	Berwick on Tweed
—	—	—	—	—	—	Falkirk

. R I F

I T E R

Dr. Stukeley's Copy Corium	I T E R V.			Antoninus
	A LIMITE PRÆTURIAM USQUE SIC.			
	CURIA	— — —	m. p. ...	— — —
	AD FINES ¹	— — —	m. p. ...	— — —
	BREMENIO	— — —	m. p. ...	Iter I. Bramenium
	CORSTOPLIO	— — —	20	Corstopotum 20
	VINDOMORA	— — —	9	Vindomora 9
	VINDOVIO	— — —	19	Vinovia 19
	CATARRACTONI	— — —	22	Catarractoni 22
	EBORACO	— — —	40	Ifurium & Ebo- racum 41
	DERVENTIONE	— — —	7	Derventio 7
	DELGOVICIA	— — —	13	Delgovitia 13
	PRÆTURIO	— — —	25	Prætorium 25

¹ Dr. Stukeley by a strange mistake reads Ad Tines, and therefore idly fixes the station upon the North-Tyne. The station must certainly have been upon the limits of the Gadenian and Ottadinian territories, and somewhere, I suppose, upon the banks of the Tweed in Tweeddale.

GALE	HORSELEY	STOKELY
— — —	— — —	Romanhow, Corfton- law
— — —	— — —	Rochester on Tyne
Brampton	Ricohefter	Riechefter
Corbridge	Corbridge	Corbridge
Dolande	Elchefter	Elchefter
Binchefter	Binchefter	Binchefter
Cattarick	Cattarick	Cattarick
York	York	York
Aldby on the Derwent	On the river Derwent	Stanford Bridge York- shire
Wigton	Wigton	Wigton
Patrington	Hebberftow Fields or Broughton	Patrinton

I T E R VI.			Antoninus .	
AB EBURACO DEVAM USQUE SIC.			Iter 2.	
CALCARIA	—	m. p. 9	Calcaria	9
CAMBODUNO	—	22	Camboduno	20
MANCUNIO	—	18	Manucio	18
FINIBUS MAXIMÆ ET FLAVIÆ m. p. 18			—	—
CONDATÆ	—	18	Condate	18
DEVA	—	18	Deva Leg. Vict.	20. 20.

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Tadcaster	Tadcaster	Tadcaster
Almondbury	Near Gretland	Almondbury
Man-chester	Man-castle near Man- chester	Man-castle
— . — . — .	— . — . — .	Stretford on Mersey
Congleton	Near Northwich	Northwich .
Chester	Chester†	Chester

I T E R VII.				Antoninus
A PORTU SISTUNTIORUM EBORACUM USQUE SIC.				— — —
	RERIGONIO	—	m. p. 23	— — —
	AD ALPES PENINOS	—	8	— — —
	ALICANA	—	10	— — —
Dr. S.	19 ISURIO	—	18	— — —
Ifurio —	EBORACO	—	16	— — —

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
— — —	— — —	The mouth of the Lune
— — —	— — —	Burton on Lune, or Ribchester
— — —	— — —	Pendleton, Pendlebury, Lancashire
— — —	Ilkley	Skipton in Craven
Aldborough	Aldborough	Aldborough
York	York	York

ITER VIII.

Antoninus

AB EBORACO LUGUVALIUM
USQUE SIC.

					Iter 2 inv.	
Dr. Stukeley's Copy		CATARRACTONI	—	m. p. 40	Catarractoni	41
Lataris —	18	LATARIS	—	16	Lavatris	16
Vataris —	13	VATARIS	—	16	Verteris	14
Brocavonacis	20	BROCAVONACIS	—	18	Brovonacis	13
Voreda	13	VORREDA ¹	—	18	Voreda	13
Luguvalia	13	LUGUVALIA	—	18	Luguvallio	14

¹ Iter 10 inv. from Brocavonacis to Luguballia 22.

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Cattarick	Cattarick	Cattarick
Bowes	Bowes	Bowes
Brough under Stanmore	Brough	Brough
Kendale	Kirby Thure	Browham
Penrith	Old Penrith	Castle Voran
Old Carlisle	Carlisle	Carlisle

I T E R IX.				Antoninus	
A LUGUBALLIO PTOROTONIM USQUE SIC.					
TRIMONTIO	—	m. p. . . .		—	—
GADANICA	—	m. p. . . .		—	—
CORIO	—	m. p. . . .		—	—
AD VALLUM	—	m. p. . . .		—	—
INCIPIT VESPASIANA					
ALAUNA	—	m. p. 12		—	—
LINDO	—	9		—	—
VICTORIA	—	9		—	—
AD HIERNAM	—	9		—	—
ORREA	—	14		—	—
AD TAVUM	—	19		—	—
AD ÆSICAM	—	23		—	—
AD TINAM	—	8		—	—
DEVANA	—	23		—	—
AD ITUNAM	—	24		—	—

GALF			HORSELY			STUKEILY
—	—	—	—	—	—	Cannaby
—	—	—	—	—	—	Colecefter, or Peebles
—	—	—	—	—	—	Corsford by Lancik
—	—	—	—	—	—	Falkirk
—	—	—	—	—	—	Sterling on Alon river
—	—	—	—	—	—	Dunblane
—	—	—	—	—	—	Kinkel upon Erne
—	—	—	—	—	—	Perth, Airdoch
—	—	—	—	—	—	Perth, Dunkeld, St. Johnston
—	—	—	—	—	—	Brumchefter on Tay frith
—	—	—	—	—	—	Brechin on S. Esk river
—	—	—	—	—	—	Eshlie on N. Esk
—	—	—	—	—	—	Aberdeen
—	—	—	—	—	—	Fyvie

				Antoninus.	
AD MONTEM GRAMPIUM	m. p. . . .	—	—	—	—
AD SELINAM	—	m. p. . . .	—	—	—
TUESSIS	—	—	19	—	—
PTOROTONE	—	m. p. ' 27	—	—	—

¹ Dr Stukeley fills up with these numerals the vacancy which appears here in Bertram's edition.

GALE			HORSELEY			STUKELEY		
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	On Dover river		
—	—	—	Nairne			Roths on the Spay		
—	—	—	Inverness			Inverness		

I T E R X.				Antoninus	
AB ULTIMA PTOROTONE PER MEDIAM INSULÆ ISCA DAM- NONORUM USQUE SIC.					
Dr. Stukeley's Copy	Varis — 9	VARIS —	m. p. 8	—	—
		AD TUESSIM —	18	—	—
Dr. Stukeley's Copy	TAMEA —	—	29	—	—
	20 — — —	—	m. p. 21	—	—
		IN MEDIO —	9	—	—
		ORREA —	9	—	—
		VICTORIA —	18	—	—
Iter 9 Ad Vallum	30	AD VALLUM —	32	—	—
		LUGUBALLIA —	80	—	—
		BROCAVONACIS —	22	—	—
Dr. Stukeley's Copy	AD ALAUNAM —	—	m. p. ...	—	—
Coccio — 66	COCCIO —	—	m. p. ...	Iter 10 Coccio	
	MANCUNIO —	—	18	Mancunio	17
	CONDATE —	—	23	Condate	18

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
— — —	— — —	Nairne ¹
— — —	— — —	Ruthvan on Spay
— — —	About Dunkeld or Blair	Brumchester or Blair
— — —	— — —	Spittle in Glenfure
— — —	— — —	Strumnic on Erie river
— — —	Orrock in Fife	Perth, Dunkeld, St. Johnston
— — —	Abernethy	Perth, Airdoch
— — —	— — —	Falkirk
Carlisle	Carlisle	Carlisle
Kendal	Kirby Thure	Browham
— — —	— — —	Lancaster
Ribchester	Ribchester	Burton by Lancaster
Manchester	Man-castle by Man- chester	Man-castle
Congleton	Near Northwich	Northwich

¹ Farr on Nairne river

				Antoninus	
	MEDIOLANO	—	18	Mediolano	18
	ETOCETO	—	m. p. . . .	—	—
	BREMENIUM ¹	—	—	—	—
	SALINIS	—	m. p. . . .	—	—
	BRANNOGENIUM ¹	—	—	—	—
	GLEBON COLONIA	—	m. p. . . .	It. 13. Clevo
	CORINO	—	14	Durocornovio	14
	AQUAS SOLIS	—	m. p. . . .	—	—
	AD AQUAS	—	18	—	—
Dr. S. Ad Uxellam ...	AD UXELLAM AMNEM	—	m. p. . . .	—	—
Ilica — ...	ISCA	—	m. p. . . .	—	—

¹ The names of these two stations are taken from Dr. Stukeley. Only blanks appear in Bertram. And as the name of Bremenium is compounded of Bre and Maen, the high Stone, and the site of it must therefore have been upon the crest of the hill at Birmingham, so this fine town has two or three Roman roads plainly proceeding to it. One is well known to appear in Setton Park. And another must have reached it from Stratford upon Avon and from Shirley Street.

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Meivod .	Near Draiton .	Myvod .
Wall near Litchfield	Wall	Wall
— — —	— — —	Birmingham
— — —	— — —	Droitwich in Wor-
— — —	Ludlow	cestershire
Gloucester . .	Gloucester	Worcester
Cirencester	Cirencester	Gloucester
Bath .	Bath .	Cirencester
— — —	— — —	Bath .
— — —	Exeter	Wells
Exeter . .	Chifelborough .	Barton on the Fofs
		Somerfetshire
		Exeter

I T E R X I.				Antoninus
AB AQUIS, PER VIAM JULIAM, MENAPIAM USQUE SIC.				Iter 14 inv.
Ad ABOŃAM ——— m. p. 6				Trajectus ' 6
Ad SABRINAM ——— 6				—————
UNDE TRAJECTU INTRAS IN BRITTANIAM SECUNDAM ET				.
Dr. Stukeley's Copy	STATIONEM TTRAJECTUM	m. p. 3	Abone	———— ' 9
Venta Sil. — 9	VENTA SILURUM	———— 8	Venta Silurum	9
Ifca — 9	ISCA COLONIA	———— 9	Ifca	———— 9
Tibia — 7	TIBIA AMNE	———— m. p. 8	————	————
	BOVIO	———— 20	Iter 12 inv. Nido	———— ' 15
	NIDO	———— 15	Bomio	———— ' 15
	LEUCARO	———— 15	Leucaro	15
	AD VIGESSIMUM	———— 20	————	————
	AD MENAPIAM	———— 19	————	————
	AB HAC URBE PER	30 m. p.		
	NAVIGAS IN HYBERNIAM.			

¹ Dr. Gale supposes Abone and Trajectus to be transposed. Mr. Horsley opposes the supposition. But the order of Richard's Iter shews the former to be right.

² Dr. Gale again supposes a transposition; and the order of Richard's Iter again confirms the supposal.

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Manham	Aunbury	Olland near Rainham
— — —	— — —	Aust on Severne
Oldbury	Henham	Tydenham or Chepstow
Caer Gwent	Caer Gwent	Caer Gwent
Caerleon	Caerleon	Caerleon
— — —	— — —	Caerdiff
Boverton	Near Axbridge	Boverton
Neath	Near Portbury	Neath
Logher	Near Glasfionbury	Logher
— — —	— — —	Narbadh Castle
— — —	— — —	St. David's

I T E R X I I .				Antoninus	
AB AQUIS LONDINIUM USQUE SIC.				Iter 14.	
VERLUCIONE	—	m. p.	15	Verlucione	15
CUNETIONE	—	—	20	Cunetione	20
SPINIS	—	—	15	Spinis	— 15
CALLEBA ATTREBATUM ¹	—	—	15	Calleba	15
BIBRACTE ²	—	—	20	—	—
LONDINIO	—	—	20	—	—

¹ This the capital fortress of the Attrebates was seated without doubt upon the present site of the ruined castle at Wallingford. That site is a good natural eminence very near to the Thames and contiguous to the old ford over it. And at it still remains, amid all the ravages of war and the fancies of innovation, an evident fragment of the stationary wall of the Romans. This is immediately on the right-hand side of the entrance, as you advance from the bridge. It is a piece of wall about five yards and a half in height on the inner side and about six on the outer. On the inner side, it has a foundation of large stones about one fourth of a yard in depth, then smaller stones in little order for two yards and a half in height, then two regular ranges of largish flat stones, then five layers of edge-stones, then another range of flat stones, and then two layers more of edge-stones. On the outer side, the foundation is rather deeper; but that and the disorderly stones rise about one yard and a half only from the ground: then the wall presents nine courses of edge-stones and a range of largish flat stones above them, and ends in two courses more of edge-stones. The breadth of the whole piece is about six yards within and six and a half without, and the thickness about two yards and a quarter. But about three yards within have lost this original facing of the wall; and the height was evidently greater, as the wall even now rises two inches at least above the last layer of edge-stones within. And as the ground within has evidently been sunk below its original level, being now even lower than the foundation of the wall; so the courses of edge-stones are a sufficient evidence of the original constructors of the wall. That style of building appears plainly to have been used by the Romans, being found in the vallum of Severus and in the walls of Silchester.

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Westbury	Near Leckham	Lacock on Avon Wilts
Kenmet	Marlborough	Marlborough
Spene	Spene	Spene
Henley	Silchester	Wallingford
— — — — —	— — — — —	Bray
London	London	London

And that style of building appears not to have been ever used at all by either the Saxons the Danes or the Normans of the island.

The British fortress which was originally placed upon the site of this station, which was denominated Bibrac-te or the Abode of the Bibroc, and which was the original metropolis of the Bibroces, must have been seated upon the area of the present church-yard at Bray, the site of the vicarial house and vicarial garden, and the level of the adjoining meadow to the west of all. This compass of ground lies upon the southern side of the Thames and spreads directly along the current of it. This compass of ground contains about twelve statute-acres, and reaches at one extremity to the point of the old ford over the river. And the fortress must have been surrounded with the great wood or frith (as Leland calls it) which remained very considerable to the days of Q. Elizabeth, the last remains of which were grubbed up for firing in the severe frost of 1739, and the site of which still retaineth the name of Maidenhead Thicket.

The Roman station which was afterwards constructed upon the British fortress must have been placed upon one side of it and must have been confined within the area of the adjoining meadow. That field lies at the confluence of a brook with the river, and is defended by the former upon one side, by the latter upon another, and by some remains of ditches upon a third. That field is denominated Garston or the Field of War, and includes an area of about five acres. And near to that field and skirting the eastern side of the church-yard Tradition lays the old road to London, carries it along the lane, and makes it to ford the river at the end.

		I T E R X I I I .				Antoninus.	
		AB ISCA URICONIUM USQUE SIC.				Iter 12.	
Dr. Stukeley's Copy							
Bultro	9	BULTRO	—	—	m. p. 8	Burrio	— 9
		GOBANNIO	—	—	12	Gobannio	12
		MAGNA	—	—	23	Magnis	22
		BRANOGENIO		—	23	Bravinio	24
Urioconio	28	URIOCONIO	—	—	27	Urioconio	27

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Brubege	Ask	Caerphylli Castle
Aber-gavenny	Aber-gavenny	Aber-gavenny
Old Radnor	Kencheſter	Old Radnor
Ruſhbury	Ludlow	Worceſter
Wroxeter	Wroxeter	Wroxeter

I T E R X I V . .				Antoninus	
AB ISCA PER GLEBON LINDUM USQUE SIC				Iter 13.	
Iter 13. Bultro	BALLIO	—	m. p. 8	Burrio	— 9
	BLESTIO	—	12	Blestio	— 11
	SARICONIO	—	11	Ariconio	— 11
	GLEBON COLONIA	—	15	Clevo	— 15
	AD ANTONAM	—	15	—	—
	ALAUNA	—	15	—	—
	PRÆSIDIUM ¹	—	—	—	—
Bertram's Copy thus Croco Colana Lindum 12	VENNONIS	—	12	Iter 8 inv. Vennonis —	
	RATIS CORION	—	12	Ratis	— 12
	VENROMENTO	—	12	Vernometo	12
	MARGIDUNO	—	12	Margiduno	12
	AD PONTEM	—	12	Iter 6. Ad Pontem 7	
	CROCO COLANA	—	12	Croco-colana	7
	LINDUM	—	12	Lindo	— 12

¹ This name is taken from Dr. S.'s Copy.² This number is equally taken from Dr. S.'s Copy.

GALE	HORSELEY	STURKELEY
Brubage	Ulk	Caerphylly Castle
Old Town	Monmouth	Old Town
Kenchester	Near Rossie	Kenchester
Gloucester	Gloucester	Gloucester
— — —	— — —	Evesham Worcester- shire
— — —	— — —	Alcester Warwickshire
— — —	— — —	Warwick
Claychester	Claychester	Claychester or High Cross
Leicester	Leicester	Leicester
Charnley	Near Willoughby	Cosington on Soar Leicestershire
Willoughby	Near East Bridgeford	Willoughby, Notting- hamshire
East Bridgeford	Near Southwell	Bridgeford
Collingham	Brugh near Collingham	Collingham
Lincoln	Lincoln	Lincoln

I T E R X V .			Antoninus
A L O N D I N I O P E R C L A U S E N - T U M I N L O N D I N I U M S I C .			
CALEBA	— — —	m. p. 44	Iter 7 inv. Caleba — 44
VINDOMI	— — —	15	Iter 12. Vindomi 15
VENTA BELGARUM	— — —	21	Venta B. 21
AD LAPIDEM	— — —	6	— — —
CLAUSENTO	— — —	4	Iter 7 inv. Claufento 10
PORTU MAGNO	— — —	10	— — —
REGNO	— — —	10	Regno — 20
AD DECIMUM	— — —	10	— — —
ANDERIDA PORTU	— — —	m. p. 10	— — —
AD LEMANUM	— — —	m. p. 25	— — —
LEMANIANO PORTU	— — —	10	— — —
DUBRIS ²	— — —	10	— — —

¹ These numerals are taken from Stukeley. A large vacuity is left for them in Bertram.

² The harbour of Dubris was not the present harbour of Dover. The latter is merely an artificial pier formed by strong jettyheads of timber bolted with iron and collecting a large deep bed of beach. The former extended actually into the land, and ran up the valley at the mouth of which the present town stands. This appears sufficiently from the accounts of tradition and the discovery of anchors. Several have been formerly found

GALE	HORSFLEY	STUKELEY
Henley	Silchester	Wallingford
Sylchester	Farnham	Silchester
Winchester	Winchester	Winchester
— — —	— — —	Stoneham Hants
Southampton	Old Southampton	Southampton
— — —	Pool	Portchester
Ringwood	Chichester	Chichester
— — —	— — —	Arundel Suffex
— — —	— — —	Newhaven Suffex
Lyme	Lyme	Old Romney
— — —	— — —	Lyme
Dover	Dover	Dover

about three miles up the valley. And at that distance from the town both the direction and the aspect of the valley are equally altered. The sea therefore retiring from Dover as it has retired from all the southern coast of Kent, the town followed it, and the present Dover lies exactly at the mouth of the antient harbour. This must have been an haven incomparably good, two great headlands of chalk forming the chops of it, a long deep narrow valley forming the secure basin of it, and a back-water from the country always

			Antoninus.	
RHUTUPIS 'COLONIA'	—	10	—	—
REGULBIO	—	10	—	—

keeping it open. And from this description of its antient state, compared with the state of the coast about it, the haven of Dover appears sufficiently to have been, what the generality of our historians have supposed it to have been, that very point of land which Cæsar first made in his first expedition into Britain. His account of that land is a lively description of this harbour. Nearing the land about ten in the morning, *ibi in omnibus collibus expositas hostium copias armatas conspexit; cujus loci hæc erat natura, adeò montibus angustis mare continebatur uti ex locis superioribus in-litus telum adjici posset.* And his account of his motions afterwards quadrates exactly with the nature of the coast. Waiting for the rest of his fleet, he came to anchor about the very point assuredly where the town of Dover now stands, & ventum & æstum uno tempore nactus secundum,—circiter Millia Passuum viii ab eo loco progressus, aperto ac plano littore naves constituit. He landed about Walmer Castle, where the high cliffs terminate, and whither the distance of eight miles from Dover exactly carries us. These are such coincidences as decisively prove the point. And the expressions in Dio which have been unfairly wrested by Halley into a conformity with Cæsar's account, and as unfairly applied by Batteley in direct opposition to it (p. 45. *Antiq. Rhutup.*), ought certainly to be of no consideration on the point, because they are opposed by Cæsar's. Cæsar's own account of what he saw and did must certainly, in all points where the honour of Cæsar was not peculiarly interested, be infinitely superior in authority to the accounts of others not present at the scenes, not cotemporary with the facts, and writing two or three centuries after him. The road from Dover to Canterbury, formerly fourteen Roman miles or thirteen English only (see Antoninus *Iter* 3.), is now extended to sixteen English, as the head of the harbour and the site of the town of Dover were three miles nearer to Canterbury than they are at present. And the present road runs for one mile and a half along the bottom of the antient harbour. The name of this town therefore, the etymon of which has been suspended in uncertainty betwixt *Duvr Water* and *Dufyrtha Rocks* (Lambard, Camden, and Somner), is certainly derived from the former, because it was originally placed remote from its rocky cliffs, and because its name *Dubris* or *Dubræ* is the appellation equally of the river and of the town.

³ Batteley has fully shewn, and tradition coincides with the proofs, that the large plain which now lies under Richborough Castle was formerly the great harbour of Rhutupæ, *Portus — classi Romanorum quæ Oceano Septentrionali dominabatur recipiendæ factus idoneus* (Richard p. 17). The road from Margate now runs directly across the mouth of the harbour, and the traveller now rides where the Roman navy anchored. At a point of this harbour and on the margin of a cliff were raised the castle and town of Rhutupæ. The site of the town, though it was one of the few Roman colonies in Britain, has been disputed among the antiquarians. Camden places it near the castle and on the descent of the hill (p. 240 and 241, edit. 1607). And Somner transfers it to Sandwich (p. 6. *Roman Ports in Kent*). But the reasons produced by Camden are decisive. In his time,

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Richborough	Richborough	Richborough
— — —	— — —	Reculver

though not perhaps in the days of Somner, and certainly not in the days of Batteley, the interfections of the streets were plainly traceable among the corn of a neighbouring field, and the plow frequently threw up Roman coins in it (p. 240 and 241). And this town appears from Leland (vol. vii. p. 113. Hearne) and Camden together to have extended along the slope of the hill that faces Sandwich. There, says the former particularly, more Roman money has been immemorably found and is to this day discovered than on any spot in the kingdom — The castle was without question originally the station of the Roman garrison before Rhutupæ was erected into a colony, and afterwards served solely, as it had partly served before, for a security to the harbour. The walls of this castle, the most entire of any Roman walls in the kingdom, I suppose, except those at Silchester, and of which we have a view in Stukeley (Itin. Curios. plate 97), and a description both in Batteley (p. 17) and Stukeley (p. 118), still stood very lofty in 1769, an huddled composition of flints pebbles and mortar, once faced (as the present not inconsiderable remains of the facing evince) with small stones of a parallelogrammatick figure but different in length and breadth. The exterior surface of the wall is divided into stories, each story comprizing seven courses of facing stone, and each being defined with two courses of very thin short Roman bricks. The greatest height of the wall at present is six stories and a half. And the uncommon height of the wall shews plainly that it could never have risen much higher. But the wall towards the cliff is now wholly level with the ground, and perhaps always was nearly so. — The town and castle of Rhutupæ must have sunk in ruins as the sea retreated from them. The town, like Dover, followed the retiring waters. And Rhutupæ descending from its cliff, and settling upon the sandy level of the old bay, assumed the new appellation of Sandwich. This evidently happened in the earliest period of the Saxon settlement among us. Somner indeed could not find the name of Sandwich in any cotemporary writing till the year 979 (p. 15. Roman Ports in Kent). But it occurs in a writer who lived before Bede, Aædi or Eddius Stephanus, and in the relation of a fact as early as 664 or 665. The famous Wilfrid (says the author) returning from his consecration in France, he and his company prosperè in Portum Sandwich atque suaviter pervenerunt (Vita Wilfridi c. 18. In Gale tom. i. See Bede lib. iv. c. 2.). This daughter-town of the Roman Rhutupæ must have stood close upon the margin of the sea at its original erection. But as the waters continued to recede from the coast, Sandwich found itself equally deserted with Rhutupæ, and was obliged to open an harbour through the sands of the shore. This communicated with the sea betwixt Sandwich and Deal, is now denominatèd the Old Haven, but is nearly filled up and appears merely as a ditch at present. The sea now lies two miles from the town, and the mouth of the Stour, which must formerly have been at that point of the æstuary betwixt Thanet and Kent which is still denominatèd Sture-mouth, is now the only harbour of Sandwich. There was therefore no river here in the time of the Britons and the Romans. And Camden's applauded etymology of Rhutupæ, Ruyd Tufith.

			Antoninus	
CONTIOFOLI ⁴	—	m. p. 10	—	—
DURELEVO	—	18	—	—
MADO	—	12	—	—
VAGNACA	—	18	Iter 2 inv. Vagniacis	
NOVIO MAGO	—	18	Noviomago	18
LONDINIO	—	15	Londinio	10

or the Sandy Ford, is absolutely impossible to be true. Equally impossible for the same reason is also Dr. Stukeley's etymology of Rhyd Tyf or the Passage over the Water. And the derivation given us by Batteley from the noise is obviously too general and extensive to be just. The antient name of the town is Rutupæ, Rhutupi, or Rutubi. And the modern name of Richborough, Repta-cæstir, or Ratisburghe is merely a corruption of it. Rutubi Portus (says Bede lib. i. c. 1.)—nunc corruptè Reptacæstir. And see Somner p. 87. In b. II., ch. i. I shall shew Rut and Ruth to signify any Current of Water, and Pig or Pi is a Prominence (see Baxter in Begessa and Cager Voran, and remember Cunedag &c. mentioned before). Ruthupis then is Ruth-eu-Pi, the Peak of the Currents or the Prominence of the Waves, exactly the same as Bar-Rath-on the Hill of the Waves,

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Canterbury	Canterbury	Canterbury
Lenham	Milton	Sittingburne
-----	-----	Maidstone
Maidstone	Northfleet	Sevenoke
Woodcote near Croydon	Woodcote	Croydon
London	London	London

a Caledonian islet in Offa (vol. i. p. 261), and justly descriptive of the site of Rhotupis, which projects considerably into the ancient domain of the sea.

* The Roman station at Cantuopolis, or Canterbury, the site of which none of our antiquarians have hitherto attempted to settle, was placed assuredly upon the present area of the ruined castle, a natural eminence near to the river, and giving name to the station and the town, Durovernum or Dorobernia. This name has been equally derived from the British *Dur Whern* a Rapid River (Lambard, Camden, and Somner) and the British *Dur Vern* a Temple on the River (Baxter). But as the river at Canterbury was always distinguished by its present appellation of Sturion or Stour (Richard p. 17), so the idea of a British temple on its banks is merely imaginary. The name is nothing more than *Dur Bern* or the *Kno'l* on the River.

		ITER XVI.		Antoninus	
		A LONDINIO CENIAM USQUE SIC			
Iter 15. Venta B.	80	VENTA BELGARUM	— m. p. 90	Iter 7 inv. Venta B. —	66
		BRIGE	— — 11	Iter 12. Brig —	11
		SORBIODUNO	— — 8	Sorvioduno	3
		VENTA GELADIA	— — 12	Vindocladia	13
		DURNOVARIA	— — 9	Durnovaria	8
		MURIDUNO	— — 33	Muriduno	36
		ISCA DAMNON.	— — 15	Sca Dunmunnio- rum	15
		— — — —	— — — —	— — — —	— — — —
		DURIO AMNE	— — m. p. ...	— — — —	— — — —
		TAMARA	— — m. p. ...	— — — —	— — — —
		VOLUBA	— — m. p. ...	— — — —	— — — —
		CENIA	— — m. p. ...	— — — —	— — — —

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Winchester	Winchester	Winchester
Broughton	Broughton	Broughton
Old Sarum	Old Sarum	Old Sarum
Winburne	Near Cranburne	Winburne
Dorchester	Dorchester	Dorchester
Seaton	Near Eggerton	Seaton
Exeter	Near Chiseldon	Exeter
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	Ashburton Devonshire
_____	_____	By Saltash
_____	_____	Grampound Cornwall
_____	_____	Tregenev, Falmouth

I T E R XVII.				Antoninus
AB ANDERIDA [EBORACUM] USQUE SIC.				
Iter 15.		SYLVA ANDERIDA	m. p. ...	Iter 2 inv.
Novio Mago	—	NOVIO MAGO	m. p. ...	Noviomago ...
Londinio	15	LONDINIO	m. p. 15	Londinio 10
		AD FINES	m. p. 30	
Iter 3.		DUROLISPONTE	m. p. ...	Iter 5.
Durali Ponte	—	DUROLISPONTE	m. p. ...	Duroliponte ...
Durnomago		DURNOMAGO	m. p. 30	Durobrovis 35
m. p. 20				
Ifinnis	20	CORISENNIS	m. p. 30	Caufennis 30
Lindo	20	LINDO	30	Lindo — 26
		IN MEDIO	15	
		AD ABUM	15	
UNDE TRANSIS IN MAXIMAM.				
Iter 5. from Preturium		AD PETUARIAM	m. p. 6	
Delgovitia	25	DEINDE		
Derventio	13			
Eboracum	7	EBORACO UT SUPRA	m. p. 46	
	45			

* The numerals do not appear in Bertram.

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Woodcote	Woodcote	The Wild of Suffex near Newhaven Croydon
London	London	London
Godmanchester	Cambrige	Röifton Hertfordshire
Brig Cafterton	Cafter	Godmanchester
Nottingham	Ancafter	Cafter
Lincoln	Lincoln	Stanfield by Bourn Lincolnshire Lincoln
		Kirkton in Lindfey
		Wintringham on the Humber
	Perhaps Brough in Yorkshire	Brough
York	York	York

I T E R XVIII.				Antoninus
AB EBORACO PER MEDIUM INSULÆ CLAUSENTUM US- QUE SIC.				
	LEGEOLIO	—	m. p. 21	— — —
	AD FINES	—	18	— —
	— — —	—	m. p. 16	— —
Dr. S. more* rightly perhaps	— — —	—	m. p. 16	— —
— — — 10	— — —	—	—	— —
— — — 10	— — —	—	—	— —
Derventione 16	DERVENTIONE ¹	—	m. p. 16	— —
	AD TRIVONAM	—	12	— —
	ETOCETO	— — —	12	— —

¹ These are the only stations in Derbyshire which the Romans have pointed out to us. I have in the body of the work evinced Buxton to have been a stationary town. And a road proceeds from it, as I have shewn, to Brough near Castleton. This is popularly denominated Batham-Gate. I travelled the road in the autumn of 1767, and found it very direct, very broken, and frequently spoiled of all its original gravel. Circling by Fairfield to it, and proceeding about half a mile beyond the church, I found the road opening very broad on the right, coursing in a straight green lane, and bordered with the stone-hedges of the country on either side. Thus does the road go on cutting all the other roads at right angles, sometimes very plainly and sometimes very obscurely discernible, and elbowed now on the right and now on the left by the encroachments of the inclosures along it. It crosses Small-dale Fold, descends the shelf of the hill beyond it, and is entirely blocked up by the stone-hedges in the valley. Here rounding a little upon the right in order to recover the seemingly apparent line of the road upon the opposite hill, I lost myself and it for some time. But upon the large heath immediately beyond the valley, and betwixt the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth milestones in the road from Manchester to Chesterfield, leaving the turnpike road as it proceeds to the latter, and directly crossing

Cattle-

GALE	HORSELEY	STURLEY
Castleford	Castleford	Castleford
— — —	— — —	Graveborough near Rotherham
— — —	— — —	Chesterfield Derbyshire
— — —	— — —	Alfreton
— — —	— — —	— — —
— — —	— — —	Little Chester by Derby
— — —	— — —	Burton upon Trent
Wall near Litchfield	Wall	Wall.

the heath to the left, about a quarter of a mile from it and upon the hither side of the hill, I came abreast of a large track, and immediately knew it to be the Roman road. It appeared a long straight streak of vivid green on the left, sweeping over the purple brown surface of the heath. I entered it, pursued its direction to the right, and at the end of three miles or three and a half found myself upon enquiry about a mile distant from Brough.

This village is placed in a beautiful well-watered and fruitful valley; and the cultivated scenery of it is a striking contrast to the barren heathy wilds in its neighbourhood. And the village appears from its name, its distance from Buxton, and the range of this Roman road to it, to have been originally Roman.

The station was constructed upon the three fields which are denominated the Hallsteads, and are distinguished into the Upper the Lower and the Little Hallstead. This site lies directly upon two brooks, which wash two of its sides and unite at one of its angles. This site is nearly a parallelogram of eight or nine statute-acres in extent, sinks in steep banks along one of the longer sides to the brook Noo or the Limestone Water, and slopes all the way in a gentle inclination to the South or the Gritstone Water. To the west of these Hallsteads, and two or three inclosures from them, the Batham-Gate appears very
 Iter

Iter 1 inv.				Antoninus			
From Etocetum				Iter 2. from Etocetum			
Mandueffedo	13	MANDUESVEDO	—	16	Mandueffedo	16	
Benoris	12	BENONNIS	—	12	Venonis	12	
Tripontio	9	TRIPONTIO	—	11	Iter 6 inv.		
					Tripontio	9	
Hanta Varia	12	ISANNAVARIA	—	12	Ilanavatia	12	
		BRINAVIS	—	12	—	—	
		ÆLIA CASTRA ²	—	16	—	—	
		DOROCINA	—	15	—	—	
		TAMESI	—	6	—	—	
		VINDOMI	—	15	—	—	
		CLAUSENTO	—	46	—	—	

visible along the side of the Strat-Fields; the fine ridge having the large hedge planted upon it, thrusting itself out considerably into the lane, and presenting a very remarkable elevation within the field. It is three or four yards in width across the back, one yard in height, and many yards in length, pointing directly at the end into the Lower Hallstead. And in the Lower Hallstead, and upon the lofty bank of the Noa, were very lately found the evident remains of the Prætorium, an hard flooring of Roman cement. A long cake of the cement I saw upon the site, more than two yards in length and one and a half in width, about two inches in thickness, composed of red pounded brick large pebbles and white mortar.

² The station and town of Ælia Castra or Aldchester in Oxfordshire were placed upon a very disadvantageous site, a level ground, and a damp soil. The site of the city has been considerably raised above its antient level by the foundations beneath and the accretitious earth above. This appears sufficiently from the level of all the meadows around it, and particularly at the neighbouring station. They are all above one yard and a half lower in the level than the other. The site of the city therefore, damp as it is at present, must have been much damper formerly, and nearly as much so as any of the swampy meadows in its neighbourhood.

The site of the Castrum is a very damp triangular meadow, bounded by a curving brook on the west and south, and having about the middle a remarkable mount of earth, which covers nearly half an acre of ground and rises nearly eight feet in height. This is mentioned by Plot and Stukeley, is called the Castle-Hill, and is said by tradition to have

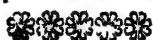
Man-

GALE	HORSELEY	STUKELEY
Manceter	Manceter	Manceter
Claychester	Claychester	Claychester
Dowbridge near Lilburne	Bugby	Dowbridge
Castle Dykes near Wedon	Near Daventry	Towcester
— — — — —	— — — — —	Banbury Oxfordshire
— — — — —	— — — — —	Alcester Oxfordshire
— — — — —	— — — — —	Dorchester Oxfordshire
— — — — —	— — — — —	Stretley on Thames
Silchester	Farnham	Sylchester
Southampton	Old Southampton	Southampton

had the Castle of Aldchester upon it. This was undoubtedly the Prætorium of the station, and seems to have been surrounded with a slight ditch. The mount was dug into in the beginning of the last century, and much Roman money was discovered, as also brick, tile, and pavements of curiously wrought tile in the bigness of a sixpence and delicately laid (History of Aldchester in Kennet's Par. Ant.). But in the spring of 1766 a considerable opening was made into it by Mr. Penrose the proprietor of the meadow.

The workmen began upon the south-western part, and, through one foot and a half of old bricks and tiles and through four feet of ashes mingled with human bones, came to paved ground covered with fine gravel. Pursuing this for seven or eight yards, they reached the walls of the Prætorium. These were standing about three feet in height. Going along the outside of the wall about twenty or thirty feet towards the north-western angle, they came to an opening in it, which appeared to be a doorway and was about eight feet in breadth. At this opening they began to enter the building, and immediately discovered a Roman pavement raised about four feet from the level of the meadow, and appearing to extend through the whole compass of the building. The pavement consisted of tessellæ about one inch and a half in the square, bearing different colours, neatly cemented together, and laid upon a bed of mortar.

Beneath, and on one side of, the discovered pavement was found a Roman Hypocaust. It was a low room of one foot and a half in height, floored with small pieces of cemented brick, and supported by a great number of little pillars. These were two or three feet distant from each other, and had heaps of ashes between them.



MEM. It is greatly to be wished; that some Gentleman would speedily give us a new edition and a numerous impression of Richard's infinitely useful Commentary. This would be of considerable service to the cause of British and Roman-British antiquities. We might then hope to see a true knowledge and a just acquaintance with the original and primary period of our history a much commoner acquisition among our antiquarians than it seems to be at present. We might then hope to see our antiquarians more commonly begin their historical researches at the great fountain-head of our history, there mark the secret primogenial principles that mix and colour it at the source, and thence be better able to discern with clearness the several ingredients and tints that successively incorporate with it afterwards. And a complete and entire Manual might happily be formed for the Roman-British antiquarian, by adding all the British Notices in Ptolémy Antonine Ravennas and the Notitia to the Commentary of Richard, perhaps all the historical incidents in all the Roman historians, and certainly a Roman-British Glossary upon better principles than Baxter's. Such a work would be a most acceptable present to the historical and antiquarian world. And I am in hopes that the present will be actually made it by my worthy and learned friend, the Rev. Dr. Hallifax of Oxford.

I N D E X.

A.

AD ALAUNAM—See **LANCASTER**.

AGRICOLA—subdues Lancashire, p. 29, 30.—Plants forts and settles garrisons in several parts of it, p. 31.—Not, as generally imagined, the constructor of all the Roman roads, p. 71.—The constructor of the roads in such provinces only as he himself reduced, *ibid.*—entered Lancashire at the head of the main army by the ford of Warrington, p. 29, 160, and 161.—and assuredly sent another body to enter it by the pass at Stretford, p. 29 and 161.—the founder of all the towns in Lancashire, p. 201—203.—his invasion of Caledonia, p. 417—418.

AGRICULTURE—account of the Roman and Roman-British agriculture, p. 211—216.

ALBANI—where situated; why called Albani, why Dannoni Albani; and why omitted by Ptolemy, p. 410.

ALICANA (or Olicana)—See **ILKLEY**.

ALPS—what mountains in Britain formerly so called, p. 140.—a station among them, where, p. 140, 141.

ALTARS—Roman, one found at Mancunium, the oldest probably in Britain, p. 47, &c.—several others mentioned, p. 49, 104, 130, &c.—one found at Cambodunum, p. 89.

ALDPORTON—why so called, p. 204, 205—why pronounced Hooperton, p. 206.

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T H E .

PRINCIPAL · CORRECTIONS

MADE IN

THE HISTORY OF MANCHESTER.

BOOK THE FIRST,

On republishing it in Octavo.

S O L D

By WHITE, LOWNDES, Fleet-street ; DODSLEY, Pall-mall ; PAYNE,
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CLARKE, and HARROP, Manchester.

MDCCLXXIII.

M E M.

THERE ARE SOME MINUTE CORRECTIONS OF THE HISTORY OF MANCHESTER IN THE PRESENT SUPPLEMENT, WHICH ARE NOT TO BE FOUND IN THE OCTAVO EDITION OF IT; AS THEY DID NOT OCCUR TO THE AUTHOR BEFORE THAT EDITION WAS PRINTED OFF.

M E M.

•• Preface p. ix. add this paragraph to the whole.

These are the principles, upon which the present work was originally undertaken, and this first volume of it completed. And the writer reflects with satisfaction, amid the solicitude naturally attendant on the hour of publication, that he has been impelled by accident and allured by pleasure to execute in part what he had always designed, but should never perhaps have deliberately begun; to task himself with some historical undertaking in the earlier period of life, to fix for some years his undivided attention on the subject, and then give himself and his performances to the candour of the publick.

B

• A D V E R.

A D V E R T I S E M E N T

To the Second Edition of Book the First.

WHEN the present work was published, the author was not a little solicitous about its reception in the world. Additional to the anxiety so natural to every writer on his first publication, he had peculiar reasons for apprehension, both from the unpromising title and the striking singularity of his undertaking. A history that pretended merely to be local, and yet ventured to deviate widely from the common track of topical antiquities, and even presumed to make its private accounts only the center of a large circle, that should generally extend itself over the island, and frequently stretch into Ireland and the continent; was a work of so uncommon a nature, as was sure to encounter, at first, all the hereditary prejudices of our old antiquarians and the publick. The former would be apt to condemn the boldness of its plan, so much above the usual scale of antiquarian courage, as the very extravagance of fancy. And, what weighed more with the author, he was afraid of being confounded by the latter in the common herd of local historians, and hastily resigned with the rest of his brethren *Blattarum ac Tinearum epulæ*, to the moths and the worms of antiquarianism. But from these apprehensions he was soon freed. His plan has been approved of in every part. And the encouragement, which he has received, has even enabled him thus early to publish a second edition of his work.

In this he has availed himself of the observations, which have been made upon the former. And he thinks his history improved by the attention. But his plan and execution are still the same. His corrections are confined to parts. And he has

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altered some, and enlarged others. His great aim has been to render each essay in the work, as far as he could, a complete treatise upon the subject, to throw nothing wilfully into shade, but make every part stand forth distinct and clear. And the style, which was sometimes embarrassed by its own accuracy and weakened with excess of vigour, he has endeavoured to improve, by clearing away its obstructions and retrenching its exuberance. In a history of so singular a complexion and genius, and with an author unknown to fame, the first publication must be merely experimental; to try the taste and judgement of the publick, for the correction or confirmation of his own. The succeeding books of this work, therefore, will not want the alterations and additions of this; when, like it, they make their second appearance in octavo. And, in that strict justice, which should always be shewn to the purchasers of a former edition, all the principal corrections of the second will be thrown together, and printed in a quarto pamphlet.

The author has been obliged to leave out the plates. They are too bulky to be folded in an octavo. And, useful as they are for embellishment, they are not necessary for illustration. But he has added near forty British coins, many of which have been published since the first edition, and remarkably coincide with the observations that he had made in it; has dispersed them in different parts of the history, and applied them to explain the manners of the Britons. And he has prefixed a little table of contents to every chapter, calculated to excite curiosity without anticipating information, to give the reader an inviting view of the country in which he is going to travel, and yet leave it to open afterwards with all its novelty upon him, as he gradually proceeds in his journey. Almost ever since Mr. Macpherson released him from attention to the dispute betwixt them, by ingenuously yielding up the whole; Mr. Whitaker has been employed in revising his work, and studying to give it every attainable grace and perfection. This he owed to himself, to local history, and a patronizing publick. And he has particularly endeavoured to perfect, what seems to himself the most curious

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part of the whole, the attempted history of domestick life. But he has been careful to preserve in the old parts, and pursue in the new, the general and leading spirit of the whole; and has always aimed, as before, to be original without being fantastical, and to deal constantly in new notices with an inviolable adherence to truth.

And he has particularly retained that disposition of the Notes, which seems to be as singular as his execution or his plan; and still places the numerous authorities for his assertions and facts, not, as has hitherto been the custom, at the foot of the page, and even not, as Lord Lyttelton has recently placed them, in an appendix at the end; but at the conclusion of each section. And from this arrangement of them the History of Manchester seems to have derived an advantage peculiar to itself. They are not now, what on the common method they evidently are, so near as to distract the attention by diverting the eye, break the narration, or confound the argument. And they are not, like my Lord's, too remote to be consulted in the progress of the reading. These little members of a work, which are so necessary to every authenticated history, and yet so embarrassing generally to the reader and the writer, are not crowded indecantly on the margin of the page, where they are attended with an inconvenience almost equal to their utility; and are not huddled together in a common repository at the close, where they are lost to every purpose of immediate consultation, and the observations in them cut off from the subjects to which they respectively belong, and of which they are actual though subordinate parts. They are now formed into collections. And these are subjoined each to its own portion of the work, where every one of them is given unmingled with another; and are placed each at a point of the history, where a pause is made equally by the writer and the reader. They are not either so small, as to be occurring with a troublesome frequency, or so large, as to be formidable to the reader from their bulkiness. And they are equally ready for a transient consultation or a formal perusal.

C H A P. I.

MANCHESTER ORIGINALLY A BRITISH TOWN, ITS FIRST NAME
AND SITE, AND TO WHAT KINGDOM IT BELONGED—THE
EXTENT OF THE LATTER, AND THE ARMS OF ITS
SUBJECTS—WHEN THE FORMER WAS FIRST LAID
OUT PROBABLY, ITS NATURE AND REMAINS.
— AND THE REDUCTION OF BOTH
BY THE ROMANS.

AMID the various doubts and uncertainties with which ignorance and inattention have clouded the Roman geography of our island, no uncertainty has ever arisen, and no doubt been started, concerning the well-known claim of Manchester to the character of a Roman town. A station is acknowledged by all the antiquarians to have been settled in the neighbourhood of Manchester, and within the compass of the Castle-field. And it is allowed to be the Mancunium of the Roman Itineraries. But the origin of it is not, I think, as all the antiquarians have equally agreed to suppose, derived entirely from the Romans.

The appellation, by which it is denoted in the Itineraries, is confessedly borrowed from the British language. And this one circumstance plainly shews the name to have been imposed by the Britons. They only could communicate a British appellation to a Roman fortress.—And, if the Romans had been the original constructors of the fort, they would have given it a Roman name. If the site had lain totally undiscriminated from
the

P. 9.

L. 27—29 thus—The usual appellation of the islanders, Britanni, in the present denomination of the Armorican Britons and their language, Brez and Brezonec, and in the name of the Brigantes. Brit is enlarged into Brit-on or Brit-an in the plural, and Brit-an-ec in the relative adjective, &c.

P. 10.

L. 1 thus—And, as we find the last applied once by a native two or three tribes of the southern, and by a Greek writer to the whole body of the northern Britons", for we see the first actually used by Ravennas for the country of the Brigantes, and our own Siftuntii expressly declared to possess a third part of this Britain".

P. 11.

This memorandum is subjoined to the notes.

M E M.

The etymology of the names Albion, Britain, and Brigantes, the period of the first population of the island, and the derivation of the original colonists, have, since the first edition of this work, been more fully opened and ascertained in *The Genuine History of the Britons* asserted against Mr. Macpherson, p. 29—32, 71—74, 91—93, and 95—103.

P. 12.

L. 1—8 thus—The riches of the Britons consisted chiefly in their cattle'. And it appears to have been a practice among three of their tribes, at least, to keep large herds of them upon the uninhabited grounds that skirted the confines of their country. Retaining under their own care as many as they could conveniently furnish with pastures, they detached the rest into the woods on the borders under the inspection of their servants. And
these

These they sometimes called 'Ceangon or foresters from their place of residence' &c.

P. 13.

L. 10—12 thus—To a mind that has derived all its ideas of the Britons from the modern and popular accounts of them, it must seem ridiculous to talk of the British armouries. But in this, as in a thousand other particulars, modern history has grown wanton in prejudice and confident in error. And it is one principal design of the present work, to strip the Britons of the strange disguises in which she has hitherto dressed them up, and exhibit them in their natural and genuine appearance.—The armouries of the Britons were furnished with &c.

P. 15.

L. 8—28 thus—And it is a British one. Axes were a principal part of the offensive armour of the Celtæ. At the siege of the Roman Capitol by the Gauls under Brennus, we find one of the most distinguished of their warriors armed with a battle-axe. And Ammianus Marcellinus, many centuries afterwards describing a body of Gauls, furnishes them all with battle-axes and swords. Some of these weapons have been found in the sepulchres of the Britons, on the downs of Wiltshire and in the north of Scotland. Within these four or five centuries the Irish went constantly armed with an axe. And the axe of Lochaber hath remained a formidable implement of destruction

* For Paruis see Mr. Baxter. But Ceang he violently derives from the Welsh Kaing, a bough, metaphorically meaning a young man. And Mr. Carte, mistaking his words in another place, and reading his changan into changan, would deduce it from that word, and even call the Ceangi free men,—in order to mark their dependency (p. 108, a note). The word is thus derived probably. Cean or Can, a hill, signifies also a wood; as in the next section I shall shew Ven, the same word, to mean equally in Gallick and British. And Can would in the relative adjective make Can-ac. Fit-Canac, or in the rapidity of pronunciation Fir-Canc, as Cannock, the name of a forest in Staffordshire, is commonly called Cank at present, would signify the woodlanders. And Cane or Cang makes Cang-on, Cang-an, or Cang-ian in the plural.

in the hands of our Highlanders, even nearly to the present period ^b.

Other instruments have also been discovered in Wiltshire, Warwickshire, Staffordshire, Cheshire, and Scotland; which were shaped in the same manner, and therefore designed for the same uses; which however were not composed of brass, but formed of stone. And the rude simplicity of these axes, their correspondence with the arrow-heads of flint which have been so often discovered in Scotland and Derbyshire^c, and the frequent appearance of them in the sepulchers equally of the Gauls and Britons, shew the latter to have been the original proprietors of all. Nor are they, as they have been sometimes supposed by the learned, merely sacrificial or domestick implements. Domestick, but not sacrificial, were repositd in the graves of the Celtæ; as in the barrows upon Salisbury-plain have been found beads, and other personal decorations of the deceased. And the favourite instruments of the dead were interred with them. In all unlettered and uncommercial ages therefore, when the disengaged activity of man ever carries a keen and military edge with it, and his great employ is necessarily war and the chase; the weapons of both would be universally repositd with the dead. And we have a striking passage of Scripture to this purpose, which shews the custom to have been as general as the spirit of ambition or the profession of arms. Ezekiel, prophetically exulting over the fallen armies of the Egyptians, Persians, and other nations, cries out: "They shall not lie with the mighty, that are fallen of the uncircumcised, *which are gone down to hell with their weapons of war, and they have laid their swords under their heads* ^d."

Such a stone-formed head of a British battle-axe I have now in my own possession, which was thrown up by the harrow in

^b See Plutarch v. I. p. 315, Bryan, for the Gaul at Rome, and also v. II. p. 514; A. Marcellinus l. xix. c. 6, Galli—tecuribus gladiisque succincti; and Topogr. Hib. p. 793, for the Irish.

^c See Thoresby's Lett. p. 493—494, for flint arrow-heads being frequently ploughed up near Buxton, and there called British arrows.

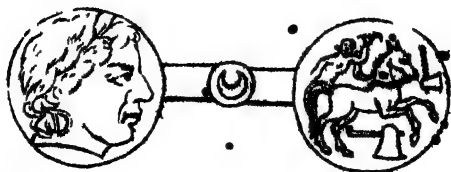
^d See b. I. ch. x. f. 5, and Ezekiel ch. xxxii. ver. 27.

an inclosure a little distant from the Castle-field. It is a strong and heavy Celt, molded with great regularity, and ground neatly to an edge, &c.

P. 16.

L. 4—7 thus—And the whole is not less than eight pounds and four ounces in weight. This great heaviness of the instruments, indeed, has been a familiar objection against the military application of them. But the argument proceeds upon a false estimate concerning the powers of the human frame. It takes not in that additional vigour and agility, which the body acquires in the habitual use of the heaviest armour. And the objector may be remitted for a sufficient answer, to the ponderous mails of our ancestors in the Tower of London. He may there reflect, whether he could march and countermarch with such a heavy incumbrance about him, as our fathers are well known to have done even within these 200 years, and in the deep and fonderous roads of our island at that period. With an original vigour of body no greater than what they have transmitted to their sons, our ancestors obtained from practice what nothing but that could confer, and what an equal practice would equally confer on their descendants.

Two such battle-axes as this are delineated upon an antient coin of the island, which the horse on one side, and the pearls round the head on the other, shew to be British. Here is a view of it.



8 PRINCIPAL CORRECTIONS

And here we see a smaller and a larger Celt exhibited together on the coin, and having the handle inserted into the body of each ^e.

This, and the military chariot, were derived &c.

P. 17.

L. 20—21 thus—Such are sometimes the little escapes of real learning and judgment.

P. 20.

L. 2—4 thus—The whole reflected warmth of our sun. And this is the case with numbers of the British fortresses &c.

P. 24.

L. 4 thus—They were, as we have every reason to suppose, what the general houses of the Gauls and Britons were, great round cabins &c.

L. 29 thus—Assistance of lime. The houses in the western isles of Scotland, to this day, are built of stone and cemented with earth ^f. And the same &c.

P. 25.

L. 31—For south-west, read south-east.

P. 26—27.

The paragraph now runs thus—During this application of that remarkable spot, the country around it was one large wood, which began immediately without the barriers, and diffused itself on every side. And the popular denomination of it among the Britons will hereafter appear to have been Arden. ~~This was the common name of forests among the Celtae in general, from the widely extensive one which ranged for 500 miles in length across the country of Gaul, or covered more than half the county of Warwick in Britain, and the sites of which still retain the appellation of Arden,~~

^e This Coin was published since the first edition of this work, and is N^o III. plate 16. of Dr. Stukeley's British Coins.

^f See Martin's W. Isles, p. 297, second edit.

to the much smaller one that surrounded Mancenion. Written Arduen by Cæsar and Tacitus in speaking of the forest in Gaul, and Ardven by Ossian in mentioning the woods of Caledonia, it cannot be compounded of Ar the præpositive article in Celtick and the substantive Den, as the oracular interpreter of the Roman-British appellations asserts it to be"; but is formed of Ard an adjective, and Ven the same as Den. The meaning of the name therefore is not, as Mr. Baxter renders it, simply the hills, or, even as the ingenious translator of Ossian interprets it, the high hill. Ard signifies either high or great, and Ven or Den either a hill or wood. Arduen, Ardven, or Arden, then, means a considerable wood. Hence, only, the name became applicable to such very different sites, as the plains of Warwickshire and the hills of Scotland. And it was given, not only to the most extensive forests, to that which was the greatest in Gaul or so considerable in Britain, but to many that were important only within their own contracted districts, to the wood of Mancenion, and others. That, particularly, covered the whole site of the present Manchester. And all along the streets, which now resound with the voice of industry, and are now crowded with the retainers of commerce, then existed the gloom of a forest and the silence of solitude. And a mind tolerably romantic might long amuse itself with the reflexion, that this gloom was never invaded or this silence interrupted, but by the resort of soldiers to the fortress in war, the visits of hunters in peace, or the distant sounds of the garrison conversing in the Castle-field; and that the boar and wolf, then (as will hereafter appear) the inhabitants of this woodland, were for the most part the only possessors of it, slumbering perhaps in security by day on the bank of the present church-yard, and roaming in companies by night over the area of the present market-place.

— Passimque armenta videbant
Romanoque Foro, et lautis mugire Catinis.

P. 28.

L. 25—26 thus—Now skirted on the south and east by the Romans. And weakened as perhaps they still were by their struggle with the warlike tribe of the Brigantes, &c.

P. 29.

L. 17—20 thus—The main body appears to have advanced by the way of Warrington, and defeated the Carnabii of north-western Cheshire. And a considerable party &c.

P. 31.

C H A P. II.

WHAT MANCHESTER WAS IMMEDIATELY MADE BY THE
 ROMANS, AND WHAT CALLED — THE NATURE OF
 THEIR WORKS AT IT — THEIR STATIONARY
 OECONOMY LAID OPEN — AND, ALL THEIR
 STATIONARY REMAINS AT MAN-
 CHESTER POINTED
 OUT.

I.

THE Britons of Lancashire being subdued in the summer of 79, Agricola resolved to establish forts and settle garrisons in several parts of their country. And he accordingly fixed the stations Ad Alaunam and Bremetonacæ in the north, Portus Sifuntiorum in the west, Rerigonium and Coccium about the center, Colania on the east, and Veratinum and Mancuniam on the south. Some were necessary to the maintenance of his conquests in the county, and must always have been erected by the Romans as they extended their empire. Six of these are mentioned by the earliest accounts which we have of Lancashire, and five by one that was drawn up about sixty years only after the reduction of it. Having been five of them originally British fortresses, they were now changed into Roman camps. And small garrisons, consisting principally (we may suppose) of the infirm and raw soldiers, were lodged in them, while Agricola with the rest attacked the more northerly Britons in the following summer.

P. 32.

L. 15—17 thus—The soldiers allotted to the business we may image to ourselves, according to the description given us by
 Vegetius,

Vegetius, leaving their shields and knapsacks in the center of the area and in circles about their respective standards, and repairing &c.

P. 34.

At the end of the paragraph is this addition.—In constructing the walls of it, the Romans pursued the method that has been equally noticed in those of Lemanis, Verulam, and Old Sarum^a, and left holes at certain distances in the ramparts. The design of these openings, however, has not yet been ascertained. And, for want of a better reason, they have been supposed to be made for the free admission of the air into the thick substance of the walls, in order to dry them. This cannot have been their original intention, as at Salisbury they appear to have been closed with stone at the ends, and have been found below the natural surface of the ground at Manchester. And they were calculated, I apprehend, to answer a more important purpose. The former have been represented, as extending quite through the breadth of the wall^a. But this is a mistake. I was there in 1772, and noted them attentively. They are five or six in number; and the facing of one side still remains over two of them. And one, that was accidentally laid open from end to end, disclosed the design of all: As the Romans carried their rampart upwards, they took off the pressure from the parts below, and gave a greater strength to the whole, by turning little arches in their work, and fixing the rest of the wall upon them. The holes at Sarum were all regular arches, at the distance of five or six feet from each other. And as late as the year 1769 there was an arch appearing in the rampart of the Castle-field, a little to the west of the south-eastern angle; and the crown of it just rose above the ground.

P. 36.

L. 9—12 thus—And all this side of the wall, which was from the beginning probably not much higher than it is at present,

^a *Itin. Curios.* p. 115, &c.

as it was sufficiently secured by the river and its banks before it, appears crested at first with a hedge of thorns, a young oak rising from the ridge, and rearing its head considerably over the rest; &c.

P. 37.

L. 5—9 thus—And the white and brown patches of mortar and stone, on a general view of the wall, stand strikingly contrasted with the green turf that entirely conceals the level line, and with the green moss that half reveals the projecting points, of the rampart.

L. 23—26 thus—And, as the soldiers proceeded in the work, we may fancy the centurions appointed to superintend it, employed as Vegetius describes them upon the like occasions, regularly examining the line of the ditch, and carefully measuring the depth of the channel, with their ten-feet rods.

P. 40.

L. 21—22 thus—And, according to the practice of the Romans in their camps, eight men out of every century, thirty-two in all, continued upon guard in the Castle-field &c.

P. 42.

L. 8—11, this sentence is left out, as the subject is more fully discussed in another place.

P. 44.

L. 1—7 thus—To the brown china of Staffordshire, but more brightly coloured, and of a strong coral hue. And, ornamented with various figures and devices, it has the name of the maker embossed upon it thus in small Roman capitals, ADVOCISI. Other &c.

P. 45.

To the last paragraph are added the following.

But that large projection of the bank of the Medlock, which commences near the south-eastern and south-western point of the station, appears to have been applied to the most capital use. Lying within the two angles of the camp, and forming an agreeable addition to it, it was naturally the site of all the offices. And in 1771 were here found some remains of buildings, which the nature of the construction and the discovery of coins equally marked to be Roman.

A little to the west of the south-eastern angle, and directly opposite to the small bridge on the other side of the river, as the workmen were levelling the bank for a wharf, and proceeding to the east, they came to a large stone, like the pedestal of a pillar, but all plane on the surface. It was about two feet nine inches across at the base, and gradually decreased upwards by four stages, as it were, of eight inches, three and a half, one and three quarters, and one and a half, in length, to two feet and three inches, two feet, and one foot nine. It was placed on a flooring seven or eight inches thick, which was made with pieces of soft red rock, and bedded in clay. And it was nearly twenty-five yards distant from the present edge of the water.

Eight feet immediately to the east of this was a building, equally with the stone about two below the surface of the ground, and floored with a Roman cement of mortar and pounded brick. This was nine inches in thickness, and rested on a body of marble about as many in depth. And the whole building was about twenty feet long and ten broad, — Nine to the east of this was another flooring, two or three lower in the ground, and a cake of the same cement and thickness. It lay upon loose earth, but was covered with flags. And the whole was about ten feet broad and thirty long. — The exterior wall of both buildings was discovered on the northern side, running parallel with the river. That of the former was about two feet
three

three inches in thickness, and that of the latter about four. This rose about three high, and was formed of stones regularly drest, the upper shallow and the lower deep. And, having extended nearly in a right line about thirty feet, it then turned in a fair angle, and pointed towards the river. In the former building was dug up only one flooring; but in the latter three. Below the pavement described above, and in the loose earth on which it lay, were found, as the pillars of it, large blocks of a mill-stone grit and square tubes of strong tile. And the first flooring lay on all these; the intervals between the tubes and blocks being entirely filled up with earth. The latter were such as we have noticed before in the British foundation at another end of the field, and like them, I suppose, brought down by the floods of the Medlock. And the former were about sixteen inches in height and five in diameter, and filled up with mortar that had once been fluid. Three of these were found together, standing erect, and two of them so formed with projections as to make a third by their union. And these and the earth all rested upon a second flooring, another cake of the same cement, near two feet in thickness, and lying upon a second bed of rubbish about three in depth. In the body of this earth, which was covered with the second flooring, all unbroken and entire, were discovered three or four regular pillars of flag and tile. The first was placed about six feet to the south of the northerly wall, and the second about seventeen inches to the south of that. Six feet eastward was another; and about seventeen inches north of this were some remains of a fourth. They were composed of a square flag, then two layers of tile, each tile being about two inches thick and eight square, and afterwards of flag and tile in four layers alternately, all laid in mortar and pounded brick. And they rose from twenty-two to thirty-two inches in height, closely surrounded on every side with the loose earth; and lay, as it lay, upon a third flooring, made of pure and unmixed mortar, three inches in thickness, and having a layer of red sand below on the natural ground.

About a yard to the east of the more easterly building, was discovered a third, but all a mere mass of confusion. And in the broken ruins of it were dug up a couple of Roman coins, and three round tubes of tile. These were found in the ground, with their mortar adhering to the outside of them, and each about sixteen inches in length. They had plainly been formed in molds, were hooped as it were with circles on the outside, and narrowed from a diameter about four inches at one end to two at the other. And by this means they were calculated to be, as they were found, each inserted into each, and forming one long pipe.

What, then, was the design of these three buildings and the stone? Clearly Roman, they were as clearly some of the appendages belonging to the station. And the buildings, particularly, seem to have been the cowstall, the slaughterhouse, and the larder of the garrison. In enquiries of this circumstantial and private nature, however, we must not expect demonstration. And a probable conjecture is the highest point of certainty to which we can aspire.

It was the second building probably, that was the slaughterhouse of the station. Such a structure the Romans would necessarily have in the Castle-field. And they would naturally place it about the site of this, within the irregularly semicircular projection of the river-bank, below the level of the fortress, and on the edge of the water. But, what seems to amount nearly to a positive proof, close to it, near the south-western angle and along the north-eastern side of it, were found great quantities of bones heaped together, and chiefly of oxen, sheep, and cows.—What the particular design of the two inferior floorings was, covered as they were with a mass of earth, perhaps we must not pretend to explain. And indeed they seem not, in any view of the building, able to serve a single purpose whatsoever, except only to prevent the burrowing of rats from the river.—Many tiles also were found in the ruins, that had round holes in them, some larger and some smaller; and others, that were made with a bend for channels. The former were probably

bably the vent-holes, and the latter the ducts, by which the blood on the floor discharged itself into the foughs, and was conveyed into the river. And one fough, I am informed, was actually observed in the building.

This, then, was in all probability the slaughterhouse of Mancunium. And the accompanying structures on the west and east would naturally bear an affinity to it, and be the larder and cow-stall.—In the most easterly of them, the three long tubes of tile, inserted into one another, and laid in the ground with mortar, were evidently placed as a channel. And there were also found, as in the second building, several fragments of coarse tiles formed into hollows, and calculated for the same purpose. These were the drains probably for all the fluid filth of the cow-stall. And the cattle, that were slaughtered for the use of the garrison, were probably kept here after they were taken from the pasture, and properly prepared for the knife. In the ruins of the second edifice was found a large knife of iron, with a handle of stag's horn. And in those of the more westerly one was picked up the beam of a balance, and fitted with a hook at one end. That perhaps was the carving knife of the butcher, and this the balance of the larderer, with which he measured every soldier his portion; the beam being very slight, and capable of weighing about half a pound. The second and third buildings, as the slaughterhouse and cow-stall, would consist only of one large room each; and no partitions were found in either. But they were in the first; and, as a larder, they would be wanted in it. As a larder also, it needed only what it had, a single flooring of Roman cement; because the drainings of the slaughterhouse would effectually divert the rats of the river from it. It had nothing therefore but the dampness of its position, to guard against. And, placed as it was so much higher than the slaughterhouse, one flooring would be fully sufficient for this purpose.

In this view of the buildings, the eastern being the cow-stall, the middle the slaughterhouse, and the western the larder, of the Roman garrison; the stone, which was placed about two yards to the west of the last, will have its proper use and place. It

was evidently found in its original site, being fixed (as I have shown) on a regular basis of red rock and clay. And it is so much in miniature what our market-stones are upon a larger scale at present, that I cannot but think it intended for a similar purpose; as the stated point, to which the soldiers repaired every day for their portions of meat, which were cut and weighed at the larder, and afterwards distributed at the stone. Nor has Vegetius, that curious detailer of the military economy of the Romans, neglected to give us a hint concerning these minuter parts of it. Speaking of the preparation requisite in a camp for supporting a siege, he particularly directs all the live stock of the garrison, except a few fowls for the sick, to be killed, and carried to the larder; *omne animalium genus, quod inclusum fervari non potest, deputari oportet ad lardum*. And it should afterwards, he says, be distributed among the soldiers by officers appointed for that purpose, *ut adminiculo carnis frumenta sufficient* ^b.

^a Thus was the south-eastern part of the projection taken up probably by the cowstall, slaughterhouse, and larder of the garrison. In the ruins of them was found a Roman chissel of iron, shaped like our present chissels, and fitted for the reception of a wooden handle. And the south-western, which has never yet been dug into, was equally occupied in all probability by the stables of the officers, roosting-sheds for the fowls, and other constructions of a similar nature ^c. Only, at one point of this, was found a few years ago what seemed to have been a part of the Roman provision for a siege. Against such an occasion Vegetius sheweth his countrymen to have carefully collected the round stones of the rivers; and to have lined the walls of their stations with them: *saxa rotunda de fluxiis, quia pro soliditate graviora sunt, et aptiora mittentibus, diligentissimè colliguntur, ex quibus muri replentur*. The smaller were sent against the enemy either from the hand or slings. And the larger were launched

^a Vegetius l. iv. c. 7.

^c I have the chissel in my own possession, and also the stag's-horn handle of the Roman carving-knife. The blade of the latter being loose, it was stolen at the first discovery.

from their engines. The former have been frequently found in the Roman camp of Camalet, and sometimes by half a peck at a time; though there are none such in all the parts of Somersetshire about it. And a great quantity of the latter, was found all together at Manchester, when the Duke of Bridgewater began his works in the Castle-field; gathered from the bed of the Medlock, and repositied on the bank of it, lying in a large heap immediately under the British rampart, and fairly turfed over by time.

P. 46.

L. 10—16, From *among many fragments* to *Horfeley* p. 328 is left out, and thrown into another part of the work.

At the beginning of sect. IV. this paragraph is added.

One of the most distinguishing and permanent parts of the Roman character, though it has been little attended to, was a regular religiousness of spirit. This is that accomplishment of the mind, which reflects the highest honour upon it; as it is the full result and united power of all the virtues blended together. For this, probably, did the great Father and object of all religion select the Romans from the common mass of mankind, and give them the empire of the globe. And so lively did the principle operate within them, and so actively was it diffused even through the camps of their soldiery, that nine tenths of their stationary relicks in Britain are only monuments of their piety and memorials of their devotion.

The Roman garrison of Mancunium, therefore, must naturally have had some particular building for the periodical services of religion. &c.

P. 48.

L. 5—10, This whole sentence is left out, because the fact alleged is not true and the allegation is unnecessary.

L. 33—35, This also is left out for the same reason.

Vegetius l. iv. c. 8. and 22, and Iun. Cur. p. 142.

P. 50.

P. 50.

L. 21 thus—'Horseley, Cumberland Fig. 46, and perhaps Suffex Fig. 1, Trajan's; Northumberland Fig. 77, and probably 59 (see pref. p. xiv), Hadrian's; and Scotland Fig. 1, 3, 16, 25, and 26, Antoninus's —.

P. 52.

After both the paragraphs of sect. V. these remarks are thrown in.

But in the month of May 1772, close to the second lock of the Irwell, and about two miles from Castle-field, was found a Roman Bulla of gold. It was discovered in deepening the channel for the passage of the boats, buried about a foot deep in a ridge of gravel. And it is repositied with the sword in the elegant and magnificent Musæum of my friend, Ashton Lever Esq. of Alkington.

This well-known ornament of the Roman boys was made originally of leather among all ranks of people, I apprehend; as so it continued among the inferiour to the last. And, though it has never been suspected, it was plainly, I think, intended at first for an amulet rather an ornament. That lively spirit of religiousness, which I have noticed before in the genius of the Romans, was greatly tinctured with superstition. And they hung amulets about the necks of their children, representing different parts of the human body, and even those which are characteristick of man. Upon the same principle, assuredly, bullas were originally made in the form of hearts^d. And, what seems a full evidence that they were amulets, they were frequently impressed with the figure of the sexual parts besides^e.

But they did not always retain the form of a heart, any more than they were always composed of leather. As the wealth of the state and the riches of individuals increased, the young patrician distinguished himself by a bulla of gold, while the common people wore the amulet of their ancestors'. And the figure of a heart was laid aside for that of a circle. The bullas then be-

^d Montfaucon L' Antiq. Exp. tom. III. part I. p. 69.

^e See two in Montfaucon's plate, *ibid*.

^f Signum de paupere loro, as Juvenal calls it.

came so generally round, and some even bearing the impression of a heart upon them, that there are not many of the original form, I believe, to be found in the cabinets of the curious^g. But many are preserved of the other; and one, particularly, was discovered about 40 years ago in Lancashire, being accidentally picked up by a lady in the station of Overborough^h. And, when once the form had varied from a heart to a circle, the gradation was easy from a circle to a segment of it. There was some fantastical reason, no doubt, the suggestion of the original superstition, for using the former. And as good an one would easily be found in the reveries of religious folly, for adopting the latter. Our Mancunian bulla is of this figure, and the only one that I know of in the kingdom. Very few indeed have been found within it. I recollect none at present, but our own and the Overborough bulla. And many cannot be expected. The leathern, that were lost, must long since have perished. And what can we hope for of the golden, when they were thrown off at the age of puberty, and a patrician's son was not likely to come over and serve in the armies before? They can be expected only from the sons of patricians settled in the island, and employed in the civil or military offices of the court, &c. And the number of these was in all probability small.

But it is very remarkable, that the only two, which are known to be discovered in Britain, should both have been found in Lancashire. And ours at Manchester is much more curious than the other. Many have been collected on the continent in the round or Overborough figure; but none, I believe, in that of a segment. And it enables us to correct a prevailing mistake concerning these little implements. It is universally asserted by the criticks, that the bulla was hollow for the reception of an amuletⁱ. But, as I have already observed, the amulet was the bulla itself. And our own serves to confirm the notion. When it was

^g Four in Montfaucon; and two have a heart upon them.

^h Kauthmell's Overborough, p. 99—100.

ⁱ See Montfaucon, resting on the authority of Macrobius.

first found, it was nearly entire; and, if it had ever had any relic or talisman inclosed, would still have retained it. But, on examining the cavity within, nothing could be found except a few particles of sand, that had insinuated themselves at the only breach in the whole, a small puncture at the bottom of it. And the whole is something more than three and twenty shillings in intrinsic value. The two flat sides are decorated a little differently. Both have segments of concentrick circles engraved upon them. One, however, is embellished only with plain strokes of the graver betwixt the segments. And the other has stars radiating between them, executed in an elegant taste, and interchangeably pointing upwards and downwards. This therefore was the front of the bulla, the side which lay uppermost as it rested on the breast. And I give this view of it here.



P. 53.

C H A P. III.

A DISCOVERY MADE OF GREAT IMPORTANCE TO THE
KNOWLEDGE OF ROMAN-BRITISH ANTIQUITIES — THE
GEOGRAPHY OF ROMAN BRITAIN ASCERTAINED —
THE GREAT^R ROADS ACROSS IT, BRITISH
OR ROMAN — AND THE GENERAL
ROADS OF THE ROMANS IN
LANCASHIRE.

I.

THE only accounts that had descended to us concerning the
Roman stations and roads within the island, in the year
1757, were the Geography of Ptolemy, the Itinerary of Anto-
ninus, the Imperial Notitia, and the Anonymous Choro-
graphy &c.

P. 55.

L. 13—14 thus—Who advanced the Roman empire very lit-
tle beyond the Tay &c.

P. 60.

L. 19—20 thus—And transferred the imperial seat to No-
viomagus, a town in Surry &c.

P. 61.

L. 28—30 thus—Denbigh, and Flint (except a small part of
the last, adjoining to Banchor and belonging to the Carnabii),
and those parts of Shropshire which are to the south and west
of the Severn; &c.

P. 63.

L. 23—24 thus—A chain of mountains, formerly denominated *Montes Uxelli*, running &c.

P. 68.

L. 10 thus—From the south-east into Caernarvonshire on the other &c.

P. 75.

L. 34—35 thus—Such a coincidence should always be allowed as a decisive argument, unless there be demonstration to the contrary. And; only with this exception, it must always be supposed to &c.

P. 80.

C H A P. IV.

THE ROMAN ROADS TRACED FROM MANCHESTER TO
OTHER STATIONS, CAMBODUNUM, CONDATE, AND COC-
CIUM — THE SITES FIXED, AND THE REMAINS DE-
SCRIBED — AND SOME CURIOUS PARTICULARS
LAID OPEN IN THE HISTORY OF THE
BRITONS OF WEST-CHESHIRE.

I.

IT has been questioned by the antiquarians, whether the stations or roads of the Romans were prior in time. And no determination has been given to the question. But the decision, I think, is easy. The stations were prior, as I have previously intimated; and the roads were only the channels of communication between them. Many of the former necessarily commenced, as I have mentioned before, during the very conquest of the country; and all of them at the conclusion of it. And the latter could not be constructed till the first or second summer after both.

P. 86.

L. 25—33 thus—And going through Mr. Kershaw's kitchen-croft and fold, and over Mr. Bent's gatefield, it proceeds to Glodwick, where it has been found by the plough in one part, and is visible to the eye for a great number of yards together in another. It is again seen at the descent of the hill, and in the grounds of Wellihole. It leaves Haigh Chapel a little on the south, goes up the hill to the village of Osterlands, and enters
York-

Yorkshire; keeps in the inclosures along the southern edge of the High-moor, and comes close to Knot-hill in Saddleworth. Crossing the Manchester and Huddersfield road at Delf, and passing along the fields to Castlethaw, it appears in one long green seam upon Clowze-mofs, and is popularly denominated the Old Gate. And it appears again in a green track upon the hill which is called the Reaps, leaves March-hill a little to the north, and Marsden about a mile and a half to the south, and runs over the middle of Holm-moor, up Cupwith-moor, and by Pole-moor-stone, to the northern side of Gowkerhill, and the groundplot of Cambodunum.

P. 94.

L. 9—11 thus—Unjust. And, as they clash with the opinions that I have advanced in the text, I feel myself compelled in my own defence to notice them. Thus Mr. Percival in p. 63, on suppositions frivolous in themselves, and Mr. Watson in p. 218—220, on reasonings confessedly contrary to authority, &c.

Last line thus—In A. D. 633. The Campodonum of Bede, therefore, cannot be Doncaster. It can only be the Canibodunum of the Itineraries. And we have exactly a parallel instance among the Brigantes of the Alpine regions, the Cambodunum of Ptolemy (p. 62) being denominated Campodunum by Strabo (p. 316).

P. 102.

L. 20—21 thus—All Cheshire, all Staffordshire, those parts of Shropshire which lie to the north and east of the Severn, almost all Warwickshire, and the adjoining lands of &c.

P. 103.

L. 9—10 thus—The whole of Staffordshire and Cheshire, and several parts of Shropshire, Warwickshire, &c.

L. 29—30 thus—The whole of Staffordshire, and the neighbouring parts of Shropshire, Warwickshire, &c.

P. 104.

L. 2—3 thus—County, Staffordshire, and the neighbouring parts of Shropshire, Warwickshire, &c.

P. 110.

L. 17—22 thus—Winter's tale. And, in this state &c.

L. 30—36 thus—There, only, are those particularities of site, which the Romans generally secured in the position of a camp, the convenience of a stream and the advantage of a bank, the concurrence of a brook with a river, and a commodious point of ground betwixt both. The one would afford &c.

P. 114.

L. 2—21 thus—The latter, which from the Roman termination of the word appears to have been *Cæsar Cocci*, imports literally the city of the high one. And the former, which may be either *Rigo* or *Rigod dunum*, signifies the fortress of the king or kings. Thus *Ragæ*, the Roman name of the present Leicester, and the British appellation of the Coritanian capital; and *Regnum*, or *Ragen-ti-um*, the capital of the *Regni*, and the present Chichester in Suffex; are exactly the same with *Rig-od* and *Rig-od-dunum*: being all of them the British plurals of the same word, and equally with *Cocci* the designation of a metropolis. And a duplicate of names appears to have been not uncommon among the Britons in general for their stations in the woods; *Camulodunum* and *Cambodunum* being two denominations for the same fortress, *Regnum* and *Regentium* being equally the title of Chichester, and the *Bovium* of Antoninus only a different appellation for the Banchorium of Richard:

P. 115.

P. 115.

L. 31 thus—Among the primitive Britons and western Highlanders. The besieged &c.

L. 25 thus—And there are to this day several carnes, or heaps of stones, upon the heights along the coast of the Harries, on which the inhabitants used to burn heath, as the signal of an approaching enemy.

P. 116.

Note 6. thus—Baxter in Cogidumnus and Lhuyd in p. 215.

* Martin's W. Isles, p. 35.

P. 118.

CHAP. V.

OTHER ROADS TRACED FROM MANCHESTER TO OTHER STATIONS — THE SITES AND REMAINS, FIXED AND DESCRIBED — A NEW ACCOUNT OF THE BRITONS IN EAST-CHESHIRE AND DERBYSHIRE — AND SOME ROMAN INSCRIPTIONS NEAR WARRINGTON APPLIED TO HISTORY.

I.

THESE are all the stations with which the two Itineraries represent Manchester to be connected, and these are the roads which ran between them. But there were also others. And one proceeded &c.

P. 127.

L. 23—25 thus—Was originally the dock-yard of the town. And here were constructed and refitted the many flats and barges, &c.

P. 130.

L. 14 thus—The channel of the river. This was once assuredly the capacious basin of the Roman harbour, a beautiful crescent formed by those two headlands, and about four miles over at the mouth. But of these the western has no Neb &c.

P. 139.

L. 29—34 thus—Eminence on which it is erected; being denominated Veib, Guerf, or Wherf &c.

F

P. 143.

P. 143.

L. 21—30 thus—In these the wildest parts of the wildest-region in England, the neighbourhood of a garrison only could have caused the medicinal virtues of these little springs to be even known to the Romans. And nothing but the vicinity of a station could have occasioned the waters, after they were known, &c.

P. 146.

L. 3—22 thus—The Romans, on their settlement in Britain, immediately marked and collected the mineral springs of the island, which had rilled on for ages either utterly unnoticed by the natives, or wasting their waters upon the solitary wilds of the country. And accordingly we find the warm baths of Britain, in general, mentioned as early as the year 61, within 18 years only after the first wintering of the Romans in the kingdom. And we see those of Somersetshire, in particular, noticed within a century afterwards. They are spoken of by the title of *υδατα θερμα* in Ptolemy, *Thermæ* in Richard, and *Aquæ Solis* both in Richard and Antoninus. And, as we meet with *Aquæ* &c.

P. 147.

L. 4—17 thus—The Roman bagnio at this place was plainly discernible by its ruins within the present century. The dimensions were then traceable by the eye. And the wall of it was brick, still rising about a yard in height upon three sides, and covered with a red coat of Roman cement, hard as brick and resembling tile*. The basin was floored with stone; and supplied, not by any of the springs which feed the present bath immediately above, but by that finer source of water which is now denominated St. Anne's well, and was then inclosed within it. And this continued the very curious and only remains of the

* Short's History of Mineral Waters, 1734, p. 23 and 44.

Roman baths in the kingdom, so late as the year 1709; when Sir Thomas Delves with a gothick generosity of spirit destroyed the whole, in order to cover the spring with the stone-alcove that is over it at present. But about fifty yards to the east of this, on driving a level from the present bath to the river in 1697, was found an appendage probably to the Roman bagnio, a basin about four yards square, but made with sheets of lead, that were spread upon large beams of timber, and had broken ledges all along the borders. This additional bath was replenished from another spring, which is about fourteen yards to the south of it, and called Bingham well. And both the springs, and all the others of Buxton, are only of a blood-warm heat; and must therefore have been more congenial to the state and more friendly to the health of the human frame, in the constant use of them among the Romans, than the boiling waters of the sun at Bath.

But let us turn from these notices, to survey the general condition of this part of the country in the days of the Britons.

There appear &c.

L. 30—36 thus—Worcester seems to have been their capital. The name is compounded of the two words, Bran or Bren, and Genion or Cenion. The latter, as I have already shewn in our own Mancenion, signifies simply a fortress or town. And the former, importing a head or king, seems strongly to mark it for the principal city.

P. 149.

L. 2—4 thus—Reduced all Staffordshire, nearly all Warwickshire, the north and east of Shropshire, the east of Cheshire, and the little detached district of Flintshire. And &c.

L. 16—19 thus—The genuine and proper name therefore was Cen-i, Y-cen-i, or Cen-om-es, the head ones; and the appellation of Cenimagni, Cenimanni, or Cenomanni signify

* Short, *ibid.*

F 2

only

only the head men, Man being equally a British and Saxon word, and retained to this day in the Erf.

P. 150.

L. 1—11 thus—Were equally aborigines with all ; as the Belgæ had never penetrated so far into the island, and as the Cassii, the great enemies of the Belgæ and the conquerors of the Belgick Trinovantes, lay immediately to the south of them.

• The other nation &c.

P. 151.

L. 1—5 thus—Geography, and Ragæ, only, in Richard's Roman description of Britain. The real name, therefore, was originally both ; the former implying only the town or fortress, and the latter importing it to be the metropolis of the kingdom.

P. 152.

L. 22—28 thus—Rath signifies a fortress in Irish at present, and is the Irish appellation of Charleville and (with the addition of Cuirc) of Cashel at present, and the Irish and English name for Rathdowne &c. And perhaps the British name of Leicester was compounded of both, and was Rageu-Rath originally, as Riogh-Rath is used in Irish to this day for a King's Seat ; and was afterwards broken into two, as Cocci is used without the prefix Caer, and Rigod-dunum will appear hereafter (b. II. c. n. 2. f. 4.) abbreviated into Reged.

P. 153.

L. 30—32 thus—To the borders. And it was found again a few years ago at Warrington, and immediately from its appearance adjudged to be Roman. In 1756, on digging into the ground in Sankey-lane, where all the neighbouring fields had been a heath within these thirty or forty years, in order to form the cistern of Mr. Robert Patten's great sugar-house there ; the workmen, at the depth of a yard, found a regular pavement

ment of three feet in breadth, coming from Dallam, and pointing towards the angle of the lane and the Horse-market. And it was equally discovered at the angle in 1752, on opening the ground to lay the foundation of Mr. Patten's house; being at the same depth and of the same breadth, pointing obliquely across the street, and having a direction towards the old ford over the Mersey.

There all these roads must have met. There &c.

P. 155.

L. 8—15 thus—And the ground of it was about eighteen statute-acres in compass. The isthmus in its narrowest point was only about four or five yards in width at the height of the tide, and about ten at its recess; and would easily be secured by a rampart and ditch. And a rampart of only three or four feet in height, entered as that at Manchester appears to have been, not by openings in the line of the wall, but by ascents to the crest of it, would effectually prevent &c.

P. 159.

L. 12—21 thus—Northern woods of their country, that skirted the marshy grounds which still extend for many miles by Norton, Runchorne, and Frodsham along the shore of the Mersey. Here the pieces were dug up, and here was the victory obtained. And the Ceangi, over whom it was gained, were very distinct from the three bodies of herdsmen with whom they have been often confounded. They were different from the Cangis, who bordered immediately on the country of the Iceni, and therefore inhabited in all probability the wild extent of Cannock forest in Staffordshire; it then running assuredly up to Needwood forest and the banks of the Dove, and its Cangis being as well as these the servants of the Carriabii. And they were equally different from the Cangani &c.

P. 165

C. H. A. P. VI.

GENERAL REMARKS ON THE ROADS OF THE ROMANS—THREE
 NEW SORTS OF THEIR STATIONS DISCOVERED ABOUT
 MANCHESTER—THEIR SUMMER-CAMP THERE
 —AND THEIR FORCES THERE AND
 IN THE ISLAND.

I.

TH E S E are the Roman ways, that went from Manchester to the neighbouring stations. And, such as they are, they must share in the high commendation and praise, which the antiquarians have bestowed on the roads of the Romans in general. But surely these gentlemen have been too lavish in their eulogiums upon them. Antiquarianism is merely the younger sister of History, less sedate and more fanciful, and apt to become enamoured of the face of Time by looking so frequently upon it. Let not this, however, be the conduct of her soberer disciples. Let not the historical critick disgrace himself and his profession, by admiring greatly what is merely antient, and applauding fondly what is only Roman. The pencil of Age may justly be allowed to throw a shade of respectableness, and to diffuse even a venerable air, over the productions of very antient Art. And we may appeal to the feelings of every sensible beholder, for the truth of the observation. But this is all that can be allowed to the influence of Time. And the writer, that oversteps this reasonable limit, sacrifices sentiment to conceits, and gives up the realities of History for the dreams of Imagination.

P. 169.

P. 169.

L. 25—31 thus—There are three sorts of little camps constructed by the Romans in Britain, none of which have been noticed by our historical writers. The investigation of them will open to us a new field of notices, and compleat our view of the stationary œconomy of the Romans. And Manchester appears to have had nine of them, three of one species, two of another, and four of another.

P. 176.

L. 3—7 thus—And the cattle, which they kept within it, were in all probability their hogs. These generally composed the camp-provision of the Romans^a. Two or three fields, that &c.

P. 181.

L. 7—22 thus—The stations in Britain being generally fixed upon the southerly slope of a hill or bank, they were well calculated for our winters, and as ill for our summers. The Romans, therefore, naturally constructed another camp for their residence in the latter. And their *castra æstiva* are an addition to the regular fortresses, which has been long noticed in general, though it has been seldom pointed out in particular. For this they necessarily selected some advantageous site, that was in the neighbourhood of the station, and fully open to the north. And every fortress in the kingdom which has a southerly aspect in itself, and any convenient ground near it with a northerly one, must have regularly enjoyed the pleasing appendage of a summer-camp.

^a For preparation against a siege, says Vegetius, non solum pecora, sed et omne animalium genus, should be killed, and kept in the larder; l. iv. c. 7.

P. 261.

C H A P. VII.

A REGULAR TOWN BUILT AT MANCHESTER, AND WHERE—
 THE MODE OF LIVING BEFORE—AGRICULTURE IN-
 TRODUCED—THE BRITISH NAMES GIVEN TO
 OBJECTS ABOUT MANCHESTER—THE DRESS
 OF THE BRITONS—AND A VIEW OF
 THE COUNTRY AROUND MAN-
 CHESTER AT THIS
 PERIOD.

I.

REGULARLY as the Romans extended their settlements in the island, they appear to have equally erected stations for themselves and cities for the Britons. Thus the towns of Gloucester, Colchester, London, and Verulam were constructed by Claudius, and immediately after the first permanent conquest which the Romans had made amongst us. And, as many inferior cities would be equally laid out at the same period, so remains demonstrate Chichester and tradition asserts Cirencester, in particular; to have been both erected at it. Such was the practice of the Romans, on their first reduction of the Britons. And such therefore was equally their conduct afterwards. By this means, the success of their arms was distinctly marked by the progress of cultivation, and the face of the island gradually brightened up as the line of their conquests was advanced. And, when Agricola invaded Lancashire, the country upon one side of the line, under the refining government of the Ro-
 mans,

mans, exhibited a pleasing picture of cities and corn-fields in the bosoms of woods, and that on the other one uniformly dreary scene of mosses, thickets, and marshes, brown heaths, and solitary mansions.

P. 205.

L. 20—21 thus—Such as I have previously noticed in the British and Roman foundations of Castle-field, and had, I suppose, been brought down with them by the floods &c.

P. 207.

L. 3—6 thus—To this period the Sifuntii of the neighbouring region had lived, as the Britons of the southern counties lived before, and as those of Ireland and the Highlands have continued to these modern times. They were divided into clans or &c.

L. 24—25 thus—The houses of the Britons, as I have formerly observed, were roomy buildings of a round form, and covered with a convex roof. And two edifices exactly of this shape were preserved as monuments of antiquity, in the shire of Ross, within these two centuries and a half; being, as the contemporary relater of the fact expresses himself, *rotundâ figurâ, in formam campanæ facta* *. The lord's mansion was, as our superiour houses generally remained to the last century, all constructed of wood on a foundation of stone; was one ground-story; and composed a large, oblong, and squarish court.

P. 211—212.

* The paragraph now runs thus.

Among the various manures with which the Roman farmers enriched their lands, they were totally unacquainted with the use of marle. The Celtæ of Britain and Gaul were the first that had marked this fertilizing clay in the earth, and applied it to the purpose of agriculture. And they found it the most forcible and lasting of all manures, and therefore gave it the

* See ch. i. f. 3. and Boetius Scot. Reg. Descrip. fol. 4.

honourable appellation of marrow, Murg, Margil, or Marle. They had even the credit of recommending it to the Greeks, who had a communication with both through the colonists of Marseilles, residing in the country of the one and trading to that of the other. And it was distinguished into two sorts, the rough and the rich; which were easily discriminated in the handling, and very useful either for corn-fields or grass-lands. And many others were classed under both: the white sand-stone, and the red, under the former; and the white, the pidgeon, and the sandy, under the latter.—The first of these was reckoned infinitely fruitful upon corn-fields, if gathered from a springy soil; and was thought to burn the ground, if laid upon it in a large quantity. And this is the same probably with the marle of Derbyshire; which has a great quantity of sand in its composition, and is of a hotter nature than the generality of our marles are^b. The red was mingled with gravel-stones, and thought to be impregnated with salt; but was not half so heavy in the carriage as the others, and was spread in a thin coat upon the ground. This is perhaps the red marle of Suffex, which has frequently a mixture of gravel in it^c. And both retained their influence for fifty years together upon corn-fields, meadows, or pastures.—The white was the principal of the rich marles, and subdivided into several sorts, the very biting, the silvery, and the fat. The silvery was the favourite of the Britons, and the soft chalk of our Kentish farmers at present; and lasted eighty years upon the ground. And the fat was particularly used for grass-lands; often producing a good crop of grass upon corn-fields betwixt the end of harvest and commencement of seed-time, and lasting thirty years. The pidgeon marle was collected at first in hard and stone-like masses, but was dissolved by the force of the sun and frost, and became equally useful as the other. And this is plainly the stone-marle of Cheshire and Bamfshire, which is a kind of soft slate, bluish in the former county, and blue, pale-brown, and reddish in the latter; and is still laid in large masses on the ground, dissolves slowly with the frost, sun, and

^b Mortimer's Husbandry, 1; 16, v. I. p. 88.

^c Mortimer p. 89.

rains, and is reckoned a very durable marle^d. The sandy was used only for swampy ground, if any other could be got, and was preferred to all the rest for that; and sand is used both in Cheshire and Ireland for the improvement of their mosses and bogs at present, and it or gravel are esteemed the most effectual manure for the latter^e.—And, as the dry was laid upon moist lands, the fat upon dry, and either the silvery or pigeon on those of a proper temperature; so was every species ploughed into the ground, and mingled with a little dung.

P. 213.

L. 1—4 thus—This curious account of the Celtick manure clearly shews us the minute researches and accurate knowledge of the Celtick farmers. And the British, particularly, appear to have had considerable skill in their profession, as they chiefly had &c.

P. 216.

L. 18—21 thus—Originally the peculiar produce of Gaul; and continues to this day the only wheat of Lancashire. It was denominated by the Gauls Brace, Brac, or red-coloured. And Brace is a word yet in use among the Bretoons for a species of grain, and Breach-tan among the Irish to signify wheat particularly.

L. 28 thus—Into the parish of Manchester; as a wild part of Argyleshire is said, even lately, to have been equally unacquainted with bread^f. And the Brace was &c.

P. 219.

L. 8—35 thus—That which rises in the hills of Oldham, divides Droylsden and Failsworth, Clayton and Newton, and at last winds along the foot of the Castlefield, was called Medlock or the River by the Britons. Med or Mat and Lug or Loc equally

^d Mortimer p. 87, and Pennant's Tour in Scotland p. 126.

^e Mortimer v. II. p. 16—18.

^f Birt's Letters v. II. p. 278—279, 1754.

signify water; and in composition imply a quantity of it, either a river or a lake. The former constitutes half the name in the famous Med-way or the Roman Mad-us; the Roman Met-aris or Boston-deep in Lincolnshire; the Met-aurus of Gallia Togata, and also of Brutium, in ancient Italy; the Med-uacus of the Veneti in Gallia Transalpina; and the Mode-wy, Motheway, or Methe-wie of Caermarthenshire. And the latter forms the whole of it in the Loxa of Scotland and the Logia of Ireland, the Lug of Herefordshire, the Luc-us of Liguria in ancient Italy, the Loche of Somersetshire, and the great variety of Lochs in Ireland and Scotland.

There is also a little brook, that is now nearly lost in its own insignificance and fortune, but was once important enough to claim the notice of the Britons, and give name to a street of the present town. From the Britons it received a denomination, which no lapse of time and no revolutions of history have been able to take away. And it retains to the present moment its primitive appellation of the Tib. Oozing from a small collection of water, which stagnates in Newton-lane and is fed by the drainings of the neighbouring fields, and having almost all its stream diverted into the great reservoir on Shude-hill; it scarcely continues its current along the borders of the town, but crosses the upper end of Market-street and Tib lanes, and communicates its name to the latter. And a little below Calley-banks it terminates its short course in the Medlock. The British denominations &c.

P. 220.

L. 9—19 *rkus*—Of Mar; and into Deen, the popular appellation of Ptolemy's *Devasia* at Aberdeen. And the latter is reduced into Tayne, the name of a frith in Scotland; into Taune or Tone, that of a river in Somersetshire; and into Teyne, that of a current in Staffordshire. The name of Tib actually occurs &c.

P. 221—222.

P. 221—222.

L. 1 of 221 to L. 23 thus—Thus did a petty rill receive the same appellation from the Britons as the mighty Tay. And a short mountain-torrent shares the title of the majestick Thames.

These are all of them general and uncharacteristick names. And such are also the following; the Britons naturally marking their rivers by the simple denomination of Water, and only distinguishing one from the other by a different appellative. Thus the current which rises in the township of Gorton, crosses the roads to Stockport and Stretford, and then loses itself in the Irwell, was denominated *Corin*, *Corne*, or *Waters*. And the same title was originally given to the rivulet that named the antient *Corin-ium*, *Duro-cornov-ium*, or *Ciren-cester*; as it is still continued in the present half-softened appellation of the *Ciren* or *Churn*. Thus also the brisk stream, that springs at the foot of a hill in the chapelry of Shaw, pushes its hasty current by *Ryton*, *Chatherton*, and *Blakeley*, and falls into the *Irwell* at *Huntsbank*, was denominated the *Irke*. And the greater one, that rises from a double fountain in *Rossendale*, and wheels nearly in one large circle about the township of *Salford*, assumed the similar appellation of the *Irwill* or *Irwell*. The latter is like the *Yr-wis* or *Ere-wash* of *Nottinghamshire*, and the *Irewer* that falls into the *Tay*; the *Wyles* of *Nottinghamshire*, *Yorkshire*, and *Derbyshire*; and the *Char-well* of *Oxfordshire*: as the former is like the *Arecha* of *Brutium* in antient Italy, the *Arche* of France, the *Arke* of *Yorkshire* and the *West-highlands*, the *Herke* of *Flanders*, the *Girch* of *Caernavonshire*, and the *Earke* or *Irke* of the same county. And both equally with *Corne* signify only *Waters*.

But some of our rivers would receive their names before or during the existence of the British fortress, and long before the construction of the Roman-British town. And the large important current of the *Mersey*, which ranges along the confines of the parish for many miles together, must have had one as early as the first population of *Lancashire*. Issuing from the wastes

of Woodhead and the moors of Mottram, and successively receiving the Goit, the Tame, and the Irwell; it becomes equally rapid and deep, superiour to all the neighbouring rivers, and the natural boundary of kingdoms and provinces in every period; and yet was distinguished by a name of the same import only with the Irwell, and called *Beli-sama* or the Current of Waters. Thus we have the Beale and the Bewl in Kent, the Beile in Lancashire, the Below in Yorkshire, the Bellow in Westmoreland, and the Bily in Suffex; the Somer-gill in Shropshire, the Some-gill in Radnorshire, the Seamer in Yorkshire, the Sambre in Flanders, and the Somme in France. And in a later age, while the Siftuntii resided in the Castle-field, they could not but have given an appellation to the river, which led its stream directly against the site of their woodland fortress, and is made to sweep round the front of it in a large curve. They must likewise have given names to most of the more remarkable objects around them, the current of Cornebrook and the eminence of Huntsbank, the valley of Broughton, the Irke, the Irwell, and the High Knolls &c.

P. 227.

L. 1—36 thus—And a spirit was excited by Agricola, which of itself soon executed all his political designs. The new citizens quickly passed from the conveniences of a rural life, to the refinements and luxuries of a town one. And when once the old associations of ideas are broken, and the sullen adherence to revered customs is overcome, the natural impotence of the mind generally transports it into the rage of innovation and the violences of excess.

* In this section I have interpreted some of the names of our Manchester rivulets, a little differently from what I had in the first edition. I have, since that, had occasion to take a more comprehensive survey of the general appellations of our rivers. And I hope, in some future work, to enter fully into this subject, to bring all the coincident names in the island and on the continent into one view, and make them reciprocally illustrate and explain each other.

The dress of the Lancashire chiefs, to this period, must have been the same with that of the British in general, and of the Celtick in France and Spain. And this is the curious delineation of it.

Tacitus, with two strokes of his lively pencil, seems to have given us a compleat head of a Lancashire Briton. His words are these: and they have never yet been noticed, because they have not been understood. *Rutilæ Caledoniam habitantium comæ —; Silurum colorati, vultus et torti plerumque crines*^b. The red hair generally prevailed among the more northerly Britons; as, I think, it does to this day. And the Britons of Wales were distinguished, as the mountaineers of it and of Lancashire are at present, by their curled hair, which is generally black, and their fresh-coloured countenances.—This hair, equally in the lord and client, was turned back upon the crown of the head; and fell down, as it did among the Irish within these two centuries, in long bushy curls behind. And the beard of both was suffered to grow to a considerable length, but, as equally among the Irish, was confined to the upper lip^c. Both of them appeared naked in battle: and the Highlanders retained the practice in part to the present times; as late as the battle of Killieranly throwing off their plaids and short coats, and fighting in their shirts. And this rude custom was attended with two others, the painting of their bodies for the fight, and the wearing of a ring round their middles. On all other occasions, the common people (as I shall shew hereafter) were clothed with skins; and their lords appeared in this, the one fanciful uniform of the chiefs through all the Celtick regions of Europe.

The trunk of the body was covered with a jacket, which the Britons called a *Cota* and we denominate a *Waist-coat*. It was plaided, and open before, had long sleeves extending to the hands, and reached itself to the middle. And below this began the trowsers, which were called *Braccæ*, *Brages*, or *Breeches* by

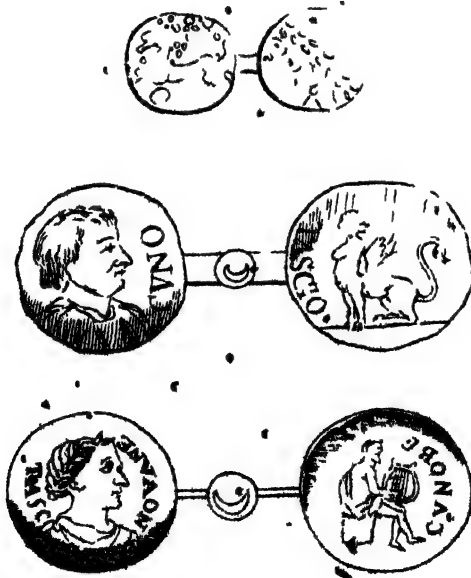
^b Agric. Vit. 11.

^c Harris's Ware p. 60 and 176, Davies p. 185, and Camden p. 792, for the modern Irish, and Camden p. 707 for the Highlanders.

the Britons, wrapped loosely round the thighs and legs, and terminated at the ancles. These also were plaided, as their name intimates; Brac signifying a party-coloured object, and the upper garment of the Highlanders being denominated Breac and Breacan to this day. And trowsers were equally worn by the Batavi of Holland and the Vangiones of Germany, the Sarmatæ, and the Persians.

P. 228.

L. 1—14 thus—Over these was a looser garment, denominated formerly by the Gauls a sack, and by the Irish lately a mantle. This was equally plaided, and of a thick strong contexture. And it was fastened upon the body with buttons, and bound round the belly with a girdle. The former appear to have been placed one upon either shoulder, where the Highlanders use a sort of pins at present; and are seen distinctly on these three coins of some British monarchs.



And

And the latter, which is frequently used to this day by the Highlanders and constantly by all the inhabitants of St. Kilda, and also appears upon the following coin,



seems to have been particularly ornamented; as some of the Gauls bound their garments with belts that were decorated with gold and silver, and in the Roman triumph over Caractacus his phaleræ made a part of the splendid show^k.

Round the naked neck was a large chain, which hung down upon the naked breast; and on the middle or second finger of both hands was a ring. The ornamental chains of Caractacus were exhibited with his phaleræ in the procession at Rome^k. And both were made of gold among the chiefs, and of iron among their followers. They had shoes upon their feet, which were the same assuredly with the buskins that were used within these five centuries in Wales and with the light flax brogues that are worn to this day by some of the Irish and Highlanders; and, like them, were made of a raw cow-hide that had the hair turned outwards^l. And they wore round bonnets on their heads.

. . P. 229.

L.2 —15 thus—And they were retained by the gentlemen of the country, and by the commonalty both in country and city. That this was the case, appears evident from the correspondent conduct of the Gauls and Britons; who kept their Virgata Sa-

^k Camden p. 793 for the modern Irish.—These coins are Borlase 14, Stukeley 21—7 and 6—4, and Pegge 5—3: see ch ix. f. 1. See also Diodorus p. 353 for the Gallick belts, and Tacitus Ann. lib. xii. c. 36. for the British.—See also the latter for the B. chains.

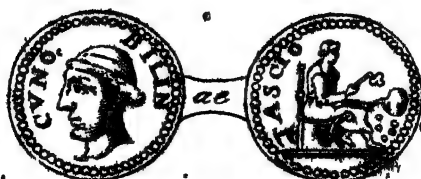
^l See Ware's Ireland, Harris, p. 178, and Diet's Let. from Scot. v. II. p. 115, 185, and 186; and Giraldus's Cambriæ Desc. p. 887. Camden.

gula to the left, and communicated them to the Franks and Saxons. The plaided drapery of the Britons still appeared general in the streets of Manchester; and must have formed a striking contrast to the gown of the chief, the dark mantle of Italy. And it, and the ornamented buttons on the shoulder, are preserved among us even to the present moment, in the particoloured cloathing and the tasselled shoulder-knots of our footmen.

The Romans, therefore, appear &c.

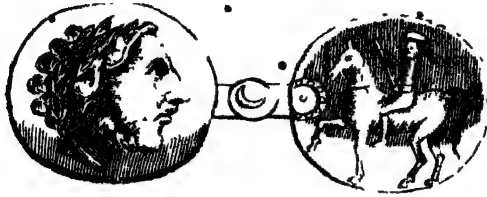
P. 229—230.

L. 22 to L. 4 p. 230 thus—Chains. And the Britons in general did not adopt the Roman Pileus or Petasus as a covering for the head; but continued their own Kappan, Hata, or Boined in use, as they have transmitted them and their appellations to us. We have a variety of caps delineated upon their antient coins, as,

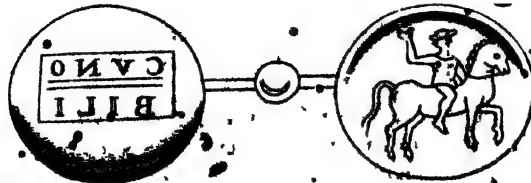
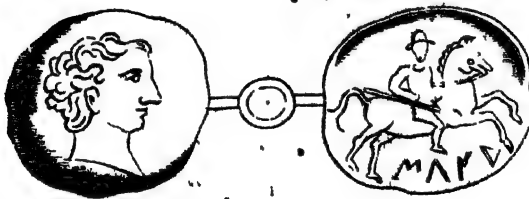
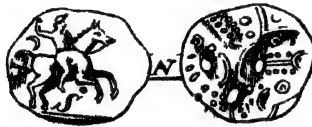


And

And these are apparently the same, that are used by our meaner Mancunians at present. We have also a Highland bonnet on another piece, and such as is still worn in our Bluecoat-Hospital at Manchester, and by some of the Lowland peasants in Scotland.



And the following hats were engraved about 1700 years ago, and yet correspond pretty well to the form and appearance of the modern ^m.



^m These coins are Pegge 3—9, 4—3, and Camden 1—2; Stukeley 1—10; and Pegge 5—3, Stukeley 4—8 and 14—6; and see ch. ix. f. 1.

The Britons seem to have equally retained the tunick of their ancestors; the long-sleeved waist-coat having remained among us nearly to the present period as the general undress of the nation, and continuing the ordinary habit of our Mancunian rusticks at present. They seem also, like the Gauls, to have preferred the structure of their own shoes to that of the Roman; still making them of hides, and in the form of our present half-boots and present pumps; still denominating them, as the Bretoons and Irish still call their shoes, Butais or Boots and Buimpis or Pumps; and leaving the names and the shoes to their brethren of Armorica and Wales, and to their conquerors the Saxons of Englandⁿ. And they plainly kept their antient trowsers; as they afterwards communicated to the Saxons their own appellation of Breeches for them, and as our sailors, and the boys in some of our older hospitals, continue to wear them at present.

P. 230.

L. 13 thus—More northerly parts of England, and of most of the common people in Wales. But, as &c.

P. 231.

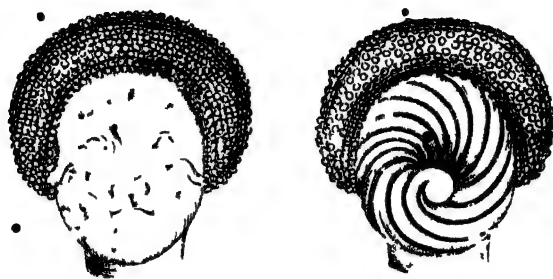
L. 1—4 thus—Were not ordinarily worne by the commonalty of the provinces; as may plainly be collected from the mode subsisting four or five centuries ago among the Welsh, and kept up by the lower ranks of them within these two; still retained among the populace of the Scotch Lowlands, and even occasionally followed by the peasants of Manchester at present^o.

And some of the British ladies probably dressed their heads, as several of the Roman in Britain did, exactly in the high style of the present fashion. This is the curious representation of a

^a So the Welsh near the close of the 12th century were *pedibus—corio crudo confutis, barbaris pro calciamen^{to} peronibus utentes*, Giraldus's *Cambriz Def.* p. 887. And see Howel Dha l. i. c. 39. A. 5. and Birt. v. i. p. 86.

^o See Howel l. i. c. 39. A. 5.—In Giraldus's *Cambriz Def.* p. 887, the lower ranks of the Welsh *nudibus pedibus ambulante vel &c., even when going to war*. And within these two centuries they used commonly to travel barelegged, carrying their stockings "on their neck, to save their feet from wearing, because they had no change" (D. of B. in Hollinghead, 1586, p. 181).

Roman lady's head, which was, found some years ago at Bath; the hair dressed in flat open buckles, and mounting upwards from the cheek in a large halfmoon. . .



By a bust of one fourth

The fashion commenced about the middle of the first century in Italy; and, what seems very surprising to a speculatist on the quick revolutions in our modern fashions, it continued to the close of it, gradually growing all the time. It then fell into discredit, and disappears on the coins of the Romans. But its disappearance was only temporary. And this part of its history is pretty similar among the Romans and ourselves. Like the high commodes of King William's days, revived with variations in the present head-dress; it returned at Rome about the same distance of time from its banishment, and once more asserted its empire over the caps of the ladies*. And it seems from the bust above to have even returned with that small appendage to the head-dress of the present times, the side or ear lock. One appears in the plate; a little different in the form, but the same in reality and design.

* Musgrave's *Belgium Britannicum* vol. I. p. 213—220, *Itin. Curios.* p. 149, and *Horfeley* p. 329, and *Somerfetshire* Fig. 11. This plate is taken from Musgrave, and is one fourth of his.

L. 31—36 thus—Now repaired to the springs of Buxton or Bath, and stewed in the relaxing waters. And that frivolous spirit of gallantry and indolence, which annually crouds both those places at present, had its commencement at this period. He, whose blood had been purified by a healthful simplicity of diet, now imitated the elegance of the Roman tables. And he, whose range was the forest and the mountain, constructed porticos on pillars &c.

P. 237.

L. 18—19 thus—The rabbit was not yet an inhabitant of the island; and therefore there is not any to this day in all the north of Scotland. But the hare &c.

P. 238.

L. 6—24 thus—On every side about the town, and spreading from it to the skirt of the neighbouring woods, would be the meadows, cornfields, and pastures; the first enriched with the foreign trefoil, the only artificial grass of the Romans at this period; and all three enlivened with the sweepings of the town and marle of the Daubholes. The pastures would be replenished with sheep and kine; and here and there probably have little hovels among them, in which some of the peasants watched with their mastiffs, for the nightly protection of both against the inroads of wild beasts from Arden. And we may easily represent to ourselves the general state and scenery of things at this period, the flocks and herds ranging over the site of the present town, grazing in the Market-street-lane, and pasturing along the Smithy-door; and the bleatings of the one and lowings of the other returned in eddying echos from the woods around them.

Birt's Let. V. I. p. 315.

P. 239.

P. 239.

L. 18 and Note 20 thus—Wife's Nummi Bodleiani, 1750, p. 95 and 227, for a sow and pigs described upon a British coin. And see Strabo p. 301, in whose time the Gallick sows ranged abroad in the fields, very large, strong, and as dangerous to be approached by a stranger even as a wolf. And there is to this day a small mountain-kind of swine, called Purs, in the isle of Man, which are admirable meat; Sacheverel's Isle of Man, London, 1702, p. 4. And in Cathness, Scotland, are reared great numbers of swine, which are short, high-backed, and long-bristled, sharp, slender, and long-nosed, and have long erect ears and most savage looks; Pennant's Tour p. 156.

P. 240.

C H A P. VIII.

THE NUMBER OF REGULAR TOWNS IN ROMAN BRITAIN, AND
THEIR POLITY—THE MODE OF GOVERNMENT IN THE BRI-
TISH KINGDOMS—THE ESTATES IN EACH—THE OR-
GIN OF HUNDREDS, TOWNSHIPS, AND BARONIES
—AND THE BRITISH COURTS OF LAW, AND
ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.

I.

WHEN the Romans had seen their little village of hurdles and clay become the magnificent metropolis of Italy, and began to extend her dominions into those of the neighbouring powers; they did not model their new conquests, as they had previously modelled their old. They instituted a new platform of polity for them, and distinguished them by a new denomination. They now divided them into districts, gave them the appellation of provinces, and subjected them to prætors and quæstors. The island of Sicily was the earliest conquest of the Romans beyond the limits of Italy, was therefore the first of all their provinces, and received the first model of their provincial regimen. And this and every other was governed by its own prætor and quæstor. The former officer was charged with &c.

P. 241.

L. 2—3 thus—Canterbury, Exeter, and Leiceſter, in particular.

P. 244.

P. 244.

L. 26—29 thus—Together without any great intermixture of the natives; allowing few probably to reside with them, but the useful traders and necessary servants.

P. 246..

L. 21 thus—The Roman citizenship was extended to every Briton:&c.

P. 247.

L. 1—3 thus—Appellata,—and Strabo p. 1197.

L. 19 thus—Horseley b. I. ch. vi.* So a number of the legionaries at Camulodunum had been draughted out for service, just before the insurrection of Boadicia: *Inerat modica militum manus, tutelâ templi freti*, says Tacitus Ann. lib. xiv. c. 32. ..

L. 25 thus—"Agricolæ Vit. c. v, Incensæ &c.

P. 249.

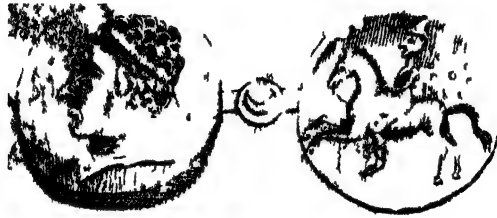
L. 9—13 thus—The intervening tribes of the Proper Belgæ (and their subjects the Hædui and Segontiaci), the Attrebates, and the Bibroces. And this extended empire over a part of Warwickshire, a considerable portion of Buckinghamshire and Somersetshire, nearly all Wiltshire, and actually all Berkshire, Worcestershire, Oxfordshire, Gloucestershire, Hampshire, Surry, and Suffex, &c.

P. 254.

L. 30 thus—And bedding; and to this day receives at a coronation the furniture of the chamber, the bed, and the bed-dress, in which the sovereign slept the night before. But, in the palaces &c.

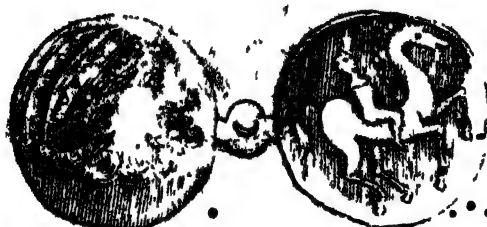
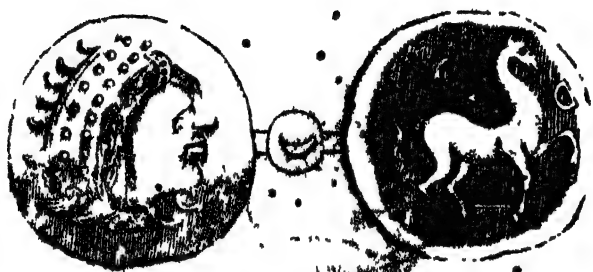
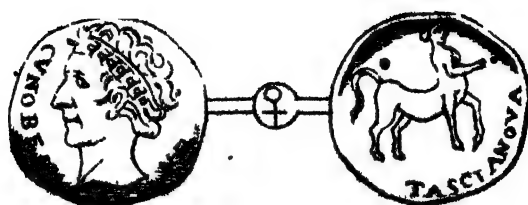
P. 255.

L. 17—26 thus—The customary ensign of royalty for the sovereigns of the Britons was the imperial diadem, which was common to them and the eastern monarchs. This was sometimes only a plain fillet tied round the head, as it is still worn occasionally by the lowest of our people at Manchester, and regularly by the young unmarried women of the Highlands; and as it appears upon these two coins of the Britons.

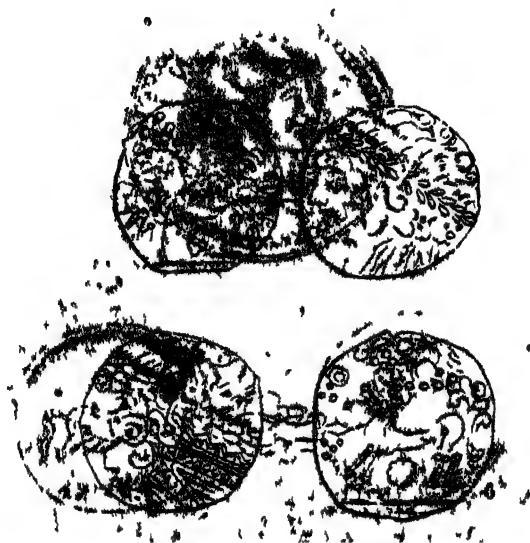


But

But at other times it was ornamented with the muscle pearls and sparry diamonds of the country ; as in these.

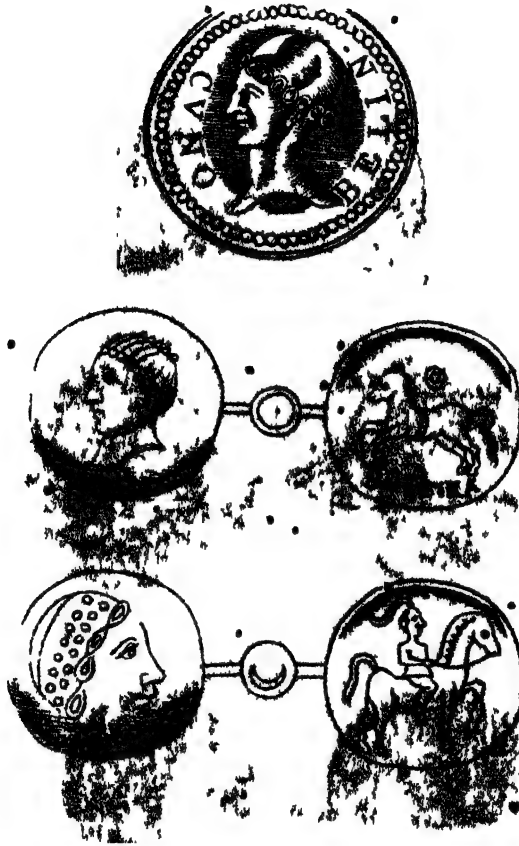


It was frequently worn by the monarch immediately over his hair, which was raised in one, two, or three rows of curls above it;



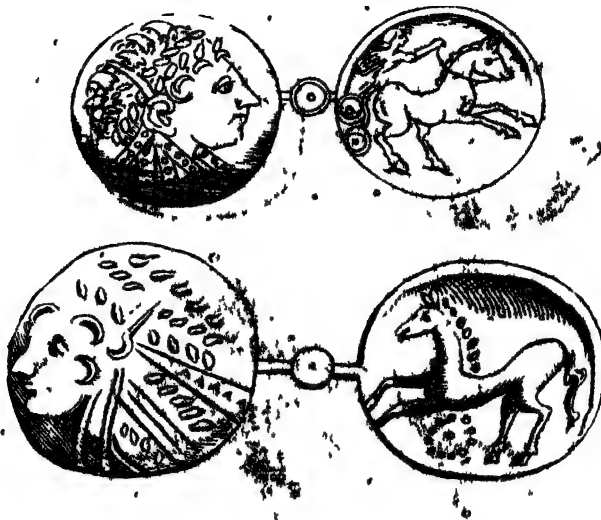
and frequently upon a small close cap, that just covered the head and was edged by the fillet*.

* See also p. 165, Strakey 4—9 and Page 2—3, and also 14—8, 1—5, and 1—6, and the ch. ix. f. 1 to Agric. Vit. c. xii. Poetic. Com. 1 b III. c. 16 and 25, Page 1—5, and Strakey 1—10 and 1—8.

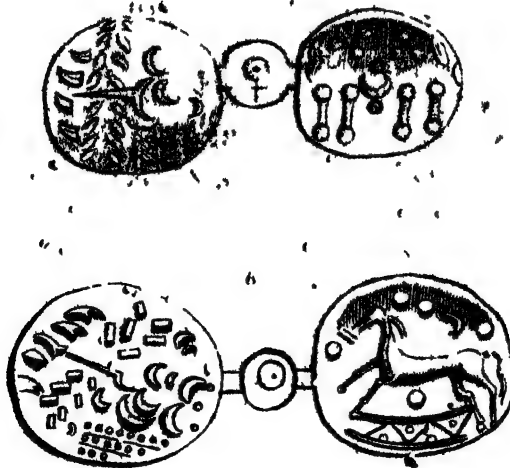


And it was often accompanied with an ornament, which has been taken by Dr. Borlase and myself for a cross fillet and a clasp. This appears upon two of the coins above, and again upon these ;

and

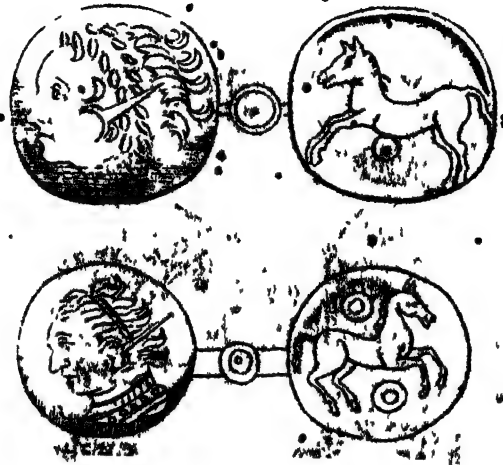


and is engraved by itself upon the following.



These

These concur with others here,



to prove it a distinct and separate ornament, and something very different from a clasp and a fillet. And I take it to be a bodkin for the hair. It carries great resemblance to such an implement. And, what seems a strong confirmation of the conjecture, in a British sepulcher that was opened some years ago on Salisbury-plain, along with beads of earth, glass, and amber, and one even covered with a film of pure gold, was actually found a bodkin of silver ^b.

But after the coming of the Romans &c.

^b Stukeley 3—10, 3—7, 1—2, 3—4, 15—10, and 20—5, and Stonehenge p. 45 and Gordon's Itin. Sept. p. 174. This bodkin seems to have lost its crook-like or semi-lunar termination either by the fire which has injured the rest, by time, or by accident.—And the crescent, which appears at the ears of several monarchs on the British coins, as in one of those exhibited above, Stukeley 14—8, and in Pegge 2—B, and Stukeley 6—10, 8—7, and 9—4, is nothing but the head of this bodkin projecting from the hair, while the body is buried in it; as appears from the same crescent appearing upon two of the coins above, Stukeley 3—10 and 15—10, with the body of the bodkin plainly connected to it.

P. 256.

L. 1—5 thus—Crown; the former being a strong weapon of iron pointed in the form of a lily, and the latter a circlet studded with stars and decorated with flowers.



P. 264.

L. 31—34 thus—British seemingly is the characteristick term of the whole, Feod or Fee, occurring particularly in the language of the Irish, and signifying literally Glebe or Land. British &c.

P. 266.

L. 8—9 thus—In the British as Fich and Fod, the addition &c.

L. 12—14 thus—What Fee and Feud signify at present, a free tenement, and its appurtenance, a noble estate and the modal tenure of it.

P. 267.

L. 9 thus—Of a feud left one son &c.

P. 269.

L. 19 thus—"Ibid. a. 6. See also Davies of the true causes why Ireland was never subdued, 1761, p. 189, for the villains in

in Ireland, paying rents in butter, oatmeal, and the like, to the reign of James the first, when they were reduced to money.—
 " Lib. &c.

L. 21 thus—A. 3, and Davies p. 124.—" Lib. &c.

L. 22 thus—A. 8, 14, and 15, and Davies p. 124.—" Lib. &c.

P. 270.

L. 24 thus—And Davies p. 124, &c.—" Howel &c.

L. 22—24 thus—" See b. II. c. iv. C. —" See an Irish-English Dictionary printed at Paris, quarto, 1768. So Tir or Land is used for a Feud in Howel Dha; see lib. i. c. 9. a. 14, lib. ii. c. 14. a. 6, lib. ii. c. 17. a. 8 and 10, p. 347, 348, 365, &c.—And Fich or Fioch, which is only Fiudhuc pronounced in the Celtick manner, by melting down the intermediate DH (see the Dictionary), is the origin, I think, of the Saxon Feoh and the English Fee; as Beach, Irish, is of Beo and Bee. Fich or Fioch, accordingly, signifies either a portion of land or a fee-farm in Irish, at present (see Dict.). And Fod, Fiudhuc, Fioch, Fich, and Fith, are all one and the same word most probably; as they all equally signify land, as Feud and Feod is now melted amongst ourselves into Feoh and Fee, and Feuders (or Feudatories) are called Feuers in Scotland to this day—" Lib. i. &c.

P. 271.

L. 1 thus—" Ware c. 8, Davies p. 93 and 117, Howel &c.

L. 3 thus—" See Gafael for a Feud or Estate in Howel Dha, lib. i. c. 9. a. 14, &c.—Silas Taylor &c.

L. 15 thus—Powel's Hist. of Wales by Wynne, 1697, p. 22, Davis's Dictionary, &c. &c. Nor is Gavelkind, as is generally supposed, confined to Kent at present. It is equally retained in Yorkshire, and is the custom of Swaledale to this day: see Thoresby's Leeds p. 215.

•K

P. 276.

P. 276.

L. 17 thus—And these were called Brethons, Brehons, or judges, in Ireland &c.

P. 279.

L. 9 thus—Britons. And the oath was administered probably upon some of their arms, as it seems to have been with all the nations of the north; being taken upon their military standard, among the Gauls, by the Irish about two centuries ago upon their swords, among the Highlanders lately on their dirks, and by the Danes antiently upon the military bracelet of their monarch. The accused having thus asserted &c.

P. 282.

L. 11 thus—²⁰ So the Brehons in Ireland, within these two or three centuries, always brought up their children or relations to the same profession, and left one of them to succeed (see Camden p. 788).—Kuerden &c.

^c Cæsar p. 135 for the Gauls, Birt's Letters v. II. p. 244. for the Highlanders, Spenser's View of Ireland p. 220 of his Works, 1679, for the Irish, and Aſſei p. 28, Wife, Spelman's Alfreðus, Oxon. p. 22, and Ethelward F. 480, for the Danes.

P. 284.

C H A P. IX.

THE COINAGE OF THE BRITONS BEFORE AND AFTER THE
 COMING OF THE ROMANS—THE STATE OF THE MECHANICAL
 ARTS AMONG THEM—THE FURNITURE
 OF THEIR HOUSES—THEIR PLANTS,
 FLOWERS, AND DOMESTICK
 ANIMALS.

I.

THE whole commerce of the Belgick and interior Britons was carried on without the assistance of money, and in the course of a regular exchange. Such appears &c.

P. 285.

L. 1 thus—Colchester. And about twenty coins, the production of so many different coinages, have descended to us, bearing the appellation of the town upon them^a. The instruments used in the work appear &c.

L. 16—17 thus—And about fifty of Cunobeline's coins, impressed with his own name in part or in whole, have come down to the present age^b.

P. 286.

L. 7—9 thus—He set up two others in two other towns of his dominions, at Verulam and London^c. And we have four of the former mint, and six of the latter, that have been safely

^a See p. 959, Pegge's list, Stukeley's British coins, 6—6, 6—10, 8—4, 8—8, 9—4, 10—1, and Camden's 1—4.

^b Pegge's and Stukeley's plates.

^c See 4—1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, and 5—1. The new mint-town, as it seems in Mr. Pegge's 2—5, is produced only by a mistake in copying the inscription (see Camden 2—12), the name being only Camu in the original, which is Dr. Stukeley's, 19—1. And see Dr. Stukeley 4—2, 4—3, 4—10, and Mr. Pegge 4, and 6—1, for Verulam and London.

transmitted to us. Caractacus, or (as he is more properly called by Richard, a British coin^d, and the Triades) Charaticus, Caratacus, and Caradauc, &c.

L. 14 thus—Scheme, and equally minted money. But in all &c.

L. 17—18 thus — And we have only four of his coins at present^d.

L. 27—30 thus—Even the word *Tascia*, which occurs so often on the coins of *Canobeline*, appears equally inscribed upon some of these.

P. 287.

L. 7—13 thus—Would first have travelled in all probability, whither it would most easily be carried, into the country of the Dobuni or Boduni, and the kingdom of Togodumnus, the son of the one and brother of the other. But the Cassii, the masters of the Dobuni, appear to have minted for them. This is evident from a remarkable coin, which presents us with a head on one side and a house on the other, and bears inscribed the name of the people, BODO, and the appellation of their and the Cassian metropolis, CAM or Camulodunum. And we have five others of the Dobunian coins, all, as we must presume from this, equally minted at Colchester, and exhibiting upon them only the name of the nation or the denominations of their monarchs^e. The art, therefore, was first taken from the Cassii probably by their immediate neighbours, the Iceni; and we have seven or eight of their coins at present^f. And it was afterwards extended gradually through the island, being practised by the Attrebates, and at their capital Calletia, Calleva, or Wallingford; by Comus and Calle, the sovereigns of two other principalities; by the Segontiaci of Hampshire and Berkshire^g; by the Durotriges of Dorsetshire, and at their metropolis Durnum &c.

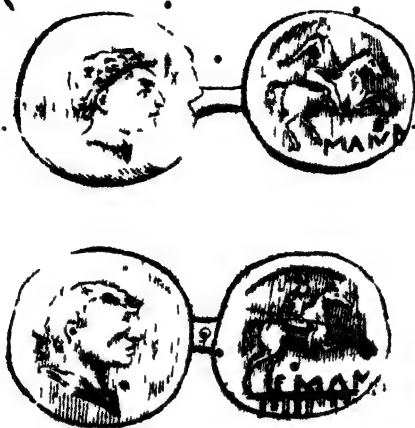
^d Stukeley 12—2, 12—3, and 12—4, and Pegge 6—4.

^e Dio p. 957, Camden 1—8, Stukeley 11—9, 20—10, 18—2, 11—7, 11—2, and 11—6, and Pegge p. 59 for Beric.

^f Stukeley 3—3, 15—6, 16—10, and 17—5, for Iceni or Cenomes; 11—7, for Pramatagus probably; and 11—10 for Boadicia.

^g Stukeley 12—10 and 13—2.

L. 25 thus—And none of it is known to have reached the present age, except the following pieces may seem to carry the name of Mancenion upon them; and to prove the establishment of a British mint at Manchester as well as York^h



Last line thus—But there is one particular in these monies of the Britons, which has now for two centuries puzzled all our critics, and loudly calls for some probable explanation. And that is the word TASC, which appears inscribed upon several of them, and especially upon those of Cunobeline. It was first interpreted by the great Camden, as Tasc signifies equally in Welsh, Irish, and old English, a tax or tribute; and to point out the original designation of the money, for the payment of the tribute imposed on the Britons by Cæsar. And this opinion has been almost universally received by our antiquarians since, and particularly vindicated of late with a profusion of learning by Dr. Pettingall¹. But it is greatly erroneous, I think, and for these short reasons. As only some of the coins are inscribed with the letters TASC; this hypothesis accounts merely for a part of the whole, and leaves the rest to stand as the regular and

¹ Stukeley 3—9 and 3—8. And Man, a place, in Man-cenion, is written to this day, as in one of these coins, with a double N both in the Welsh and Irish.

² Camden c. cix. Gibson, and Dr. Pettingall's Diss. quarto, 1763, p. 7.

current money of the island. And, had even these been intended for the discharge of the Roman tribute, they would have been principally found, not in the island where they were minted, but on the continent whither they were sent, and where, however, not one of them is known to have been discovered. And, what winds up the argument at once, a writer who was contemporary with Cunobeline or a little before him, Strabo, repeatedly assures us, that in his time the Britons paid no tribute to the Romans.^k TASC therefore cannot stand as the mark of a payment that was not discharged. And we must look out for some other interpretation of the letters.

The only others are the suppositions of Mr. Wise and Mr. Pegge. The former would refer the words, without argument and without authority, to a nation at the other extremity of Gaul that was called by a somewhat similar appellation^l. And such an ungrounded and fantastical hypothesis is not worthy a serious refutation. It falls from its own annals of nature, and is directly contradicted by the fact that I have alledged before, the discovery of the coins in Britain only. But the latter has advanced a supposition much more rational and manly, that the word is the personal or national name of the Roman-Gallick mint-master whom Cunobeline invited into Britain^m. And I adopted the opinion in my first edition. Tascuire in Celtick signifies a tributary or servant. It might easily, therefore, become an appropriate appellation. And the same principle, which stamped the figure of a mintmaster upon three of the coins, would as readily inscribe his name upon them or others. These reasons, and the want of a more probable hypothesis, induced me to follow Mr. Pegge, in his opinion upon this subject. But I have since seen reason to change my sentiments. The word occurs too often on the coins, to be merely the name of a miater. His person is exhibited only upon three of them: but the name appears upon no less than twenty-two out of thirty-nine in Mr. Pegge's tables.ⁿ And it equally appears upon ten others in Dr. Stukeley's collection^m. This is evidently

^k P. 306—307.

^l Nummi Bodleiani, p. 226—227.

^m Pegge p. 54—55.

—See 4—10, 5—5, 6—8, 7—2, 9—1, 9—6, 13—5, 15—9, 20—8, and 21—7, of Stukeley.

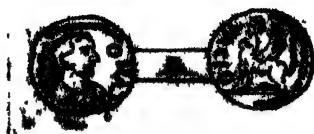
too much for a mere mint-master, however honoured. And it even occurs in some forms, that cannot agree with the idea of a coiner. Thus in Mr. Pegge's and Dr. Stukeley's plates we have TASC NO, TASC NOVA, TASC NOVANE, and TASC NOVANIT^a. And in the latter we have TASC RICCO^b. Here the word is found associated with others, that cannot with any propriety be applied to the minter. And some meaning must be sought, that will agree with the use of it both as it stands singly by itself, and as it is found confederated with these. And such a meaning, I think, I have discovered.

The word is written differently TASC, TASCI, TASCE, TASCIE, TASCIO, and TASCIA^c. And it is nothing more, I apprehend, than the British and official appellation of the king whose coins exhibit the inscription; and signifies only the Leader. Tus, Tuis, Tós, and Tóshich mean the beginning or head of any thing in the Irish language at present. And hence Tuis imports a nobleman, and Tóshich the leader of an army; as Macintosh, the family name of a clan in the Highlands, and denominated Mac-in-tóshich in the Erse, signifies the son of a general. Thus Tóshich became an honorary title among the highlanders of the middle ages. And Tuiseach and Taoriseach are the Irish appellatives for a commander at this day. The latter I imagine to be the Tasc of the coins, as the Irish Gaoidhlig is the word Gaelic, and as Wallic is pronounced Welch. So we have Tasg-etius and Mori-Tasgus cotemporary with Cæsar in Gaul, two personages whose ancestors had obtained the sovereignty of their respective states, and who were themselves raised to the throne of their fathers. And in this acceptation of the word, I believe, every thing will be found coincident and proper. There is a remarkable variation in writing the word, that has not been noticed by any of the critics. It was particularly overlooked, with a strange composite of inattention,

^a Pegge 4—C, 4—5, 4—1, 4—2, and Stukeley, 6—4 and 5—1.

^b Pegge 3—5 and 4—1, and Stukeley 5—5, 11—2 and 6—1. Tasc and Tascio; Stukeley 13—5, Tascio; Pegge 5—1, 3—13, and Stukeley 7—12. Tascia and Tascio. ^c Cist. Diff. p. 184. ^d P. 187—188. ^e P. 131. ^f Cæsar p. 94 and 108.

tion, by Dr. Pettingall, 'who first engraved it from Mr. Duane's collection, and with one of whose opinions it directly agreed, and by his antagonist Mr. Pegge, who re-engraved it from Dr. Pettingall's table, and objected the want of such a witness to the Doctor^a. And it strongly favours the whole of my notion. The word, that is written upon all the other coins TASC or TASCIO, is inscribed upon this TACIO^b.



Thus the Welsh Tuyfog, the same with the Scotch Toshich and the Irish Taoiseag, is sometimes altered even now into Dÿg, and was formerly changed into Tog, in the TOGU of one of these coins and the Togudumnus of Dio. And, as Dr. Pettingall has fully shewn, Tac or Tag signified a leader among the Britons, as in Taxi-magulus, Prasutag-us, and Carac-Tac-us^c. Both these forms of the word, therefore, coincide exactly with my interpretation of it. And, Tascio answering to the Rex of the Latin inscriptions and the Togu of the British, Cunobeline Tascio, Cuno Tacio, and Cearatic Tascie, upon some coins, will be the same as Cunobelinus Rex and Cunob Rex upon others^d. Thus Tasc is frequently the only inscription upon the coins, and is actually

^a For Pegge see p. 22—23. And, what adds to the strangeness, it hath also been a third time overlooked by Dr. Henry in his History of Great Britain, 1771, v. I. p. 406, who even recites the legend, and gives it Tascio, though his own representation of the coin exhibits it rightly TACIO. ^b Pegge 3—7. ^c P. 1—2. ^d Pegge 3—5, and Stukeley 14—7 and 9—4.

inscribed upon both sides of one of them ^a. Thus Tasc Novanit and Tasc Ver signify the King of Verulam and London, the two capitals of the Cassii and Trinovantes: And we have Cunobelinus Rex upon the face of one coin and Tasc on the reverse, and Tasc Rico or King Commandant upon another; both inscriptions asserting only the monarchical authority of Cunobeline over his subject states ^b.

In this view of the word TASCIA, I think, all the difficulties, that have hitherto attended the subject, are resolved and removed. We do not embrace the strange incongruous idea of a nation taught to coin money, merely for the sake of paying their tribute in it; remitting it in a coinage, that was too inelegant and barbarous to circulate on the continent, and could only be melted down by their masters; minting it, merely for exportation into Italy, and yet frequently marking it with British terms that were unintelligible there; and sending it for the discharge of a tribute, that appears not to have been paid at the time. We do not take up the wild and fantastical hypothesis, that the pieces were not the coins of our islanders, when they are found only in the island; and that they were minted by a nation on the continent, when they actually bear the names of British sovereigns upon them. And we do not acquiesce with the notion of their being so frequently inscribed with the appellation of a minter, that has no existence but in the visions of conjecture; and of his arrogating to himself an equality with his king upon the coins, assuming the sovereignty of his states, and even parading with the express appellation of Monarch. We take the word in its obvious and natural signification. And we apply it, as we find it applied by the Celts of Gaul about the same period, and as it has been applied by those of Britain for ages. It is referred directly to the king; with whom it is immediately connected. And it is what one would naturally expect upon a British coin, a British appellative of royalty. . .

^a Pegge class 5, and 5—5.

^b Pegge 3—5 and Stukeley 14—7 and 15—9.

P. 288.

L. 3—7 thus—Eleven mints, in all probability, and perhaps more, were established within the pale of their own government, two in the two municipia, nine in the nine colonies, and some in the legionary stations. And coins minted at Chester, London, and York, at Richborough, Colchester, Lincoln, Verulam, and Gloucester, and at Conovium perhaps, the stationary headquarters of the tenth Antonian legion, have been safely &c.

P. 290.

L. 9—11 thus—I am sorry to observe, that Mr. Pegge has sullied his very useful treatise on the coins of Cunobeline with a rude stricture on the late Dr. Stukeley. "I am sensible," he says, "the Dr. has his admirers; but I must confess I am not one of the number, as *not being fond of wildness and enthusiasm upon any subject.*"—(P. 106). Let the wildnesses of Dr. Stukeley &c.

L. 20—21 thus—And generally seduces the mind into extravagancies while it raises it to excellences.

L. 26—30 thus—Itself. And the ingeniousness of contrivance and neatness of execution, in these carriages, proves them even to have been intimately conversant with some of the best principles of mechanicks. Their cars were admired &c.

P. 291.

Last line thus—The only drinking-vessels of the Britons, and are even used by the Highlanders at present⁴.

P. 292.

L. 6—14 thus—And a pottery was naturally erected at every stationary town in the kingdom. And our own at Manchester, which was most probably settled within the projection of the river-bank in Castle-field, and on the south-western part of it, might be supplied, I believe, with proper clays from many pla-

³ See Gal's Antoninus p. 122.

⁴ Birt's Letters on the Highlanders, v. II. p. 43, and Ossian v. I. p. 27. a note.

ces in the parish, seems clearly from those specimens of its skill that I have mentioned in the former part of the work. and particularly from the coral-coloured urn at Worsley, to have been a very considerable one, and to have had excellent artists engaged in it. And here, under the direction of Roman or Roman-Frisian masters, the Mancunians learnt to model their vessels with a lathe, to give them a polish, and to embellish them with carvings and figures. Of these masters we know the appellations of four. The **ADVOCISI** of the Worsley urn is plainly the romanized name of a foreigner, and in all probability of some Frisian master-potter to the Frisian garrison. And, among many fragments of vessels that have been discovered in the ruins of the Roman slaughterhouse and cowstall in Castle-field, and on the opposite bank of the river and the site of Mr. Wallford's house, have some been found that were inscribed with the names of three others. One was the unglazed handle of a massy pitcher, and had **VABEO** rudely stamped upon it; the name of an Italian potter in all probability, as we have **Phoebio** upon a vessel at Rome, and **Vibia** on a Roman tombstone in Britain. Another was equally the handle of a pitcher, and equally large and unglazed, and had upon it the appellation **NONOVI**. And the third was a red stand for some little vessel, and on the bottom exhibited the letters **OF A ASCUI**, *Officina Auli Ascui*; signifying the piece to have been formed in the pottery of one **Aulus Ascus**, plainly the name of a German, and the same with the **Ayscue** of modern times.

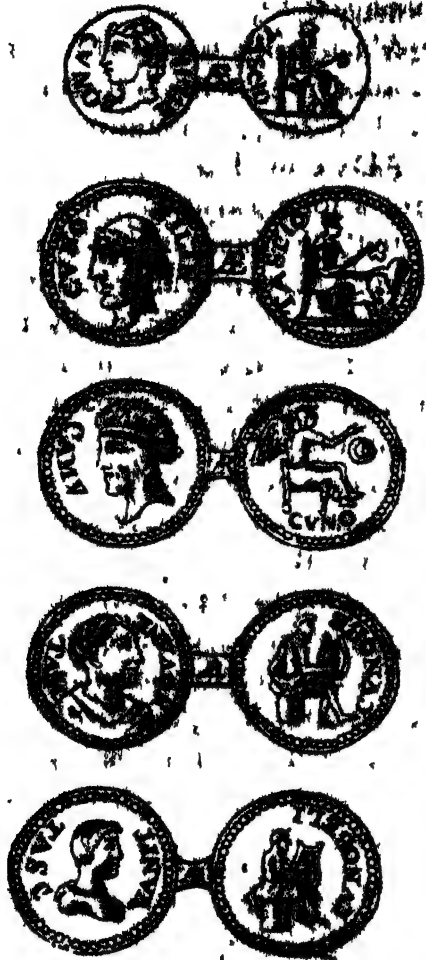
P. 293.

L. 1—9 thus—Below them. The British chairs were either tall and rounded blocks of wood, which our Mancunians to this day distinguish by the British appellation of **Crickets**, were provided with backs and mounted on four supporters, or rested upon a square basis of timber. And, as we have specimens of all the three delineated on the coins of **Cunobeline**, so we have

L 2

a cricket,

a cricket, particularly, exhibited twice upon them, and in the very form which it bears in Manchester at present*.



P. 294.

L. 30 thus—It was mingled with three-fourths of their nitre, which was a fixed salt^f; and both &c.

* Pegge 3—9, 3—1, 2—5, 4—1, and 4—3.

^f See Hill's History of Fossils, p. 387.

P. 295.

L. 13—26 thus—At the stations or towns of either, appear to have generally consisted of a thick, sometimes white, but mostly blue-green, metal.

Native amber, very naturally supposed for ages to be a distillation from the gummy trees that formerly lined all the northern coast of Germany, and are said to remain in various places on the Baltick at present, appears upon a closer examination to be a fossil, generated in the earth, and disclosed by accident. And it is the production of our own island, as well as North-Germany. Formed in the fissures of the cliffs the line the eastern shore of Britain particularly, and thrown down by the falling of the rocks, and picked up on the beach or found floating on the waters. It is sometimes gathered in large masses, not so bright and transparent as those of the Baltick, but of a pale yellow and agreeably clouded, And it is inclosed in a thin coarse coat, the nest or shell of this equivocal creation, the semblance of a gum and a gem in one ¹. And the Britons appear to have possessed considerable quantities of it. This they molded into squares and circles, and their females strung them as beads and wore them as necklaces. Nor was this peculiar to the wives and daughters of Britain. The Gallick women in the north of Italy did the same, as late as the æra of Agricola's expedition into Lancashire. And the Scotch retained the custom within these two centuries ².

P. 301.

This page now runs thus.

In this state of our island manufactures, when the hills of Britain were found to be replenished, as they are expressly de-

¹Of Roman glass-ware, says Thoresby in Leeds p. 560, I have from London, Aldborough, and Adel: the bluish green, and some of the white, are very thick, above three fourths of an inch; but a piece of the white, found five or six yards in the Roman wall at Aldborough, is remarkably thin for those ages.

² Pennant's Tour in Scotland 3 13, Boetius Scot. Reg. Descr. fol. 10, and Lessæi Hist. p. 29.

¹Lessæi Hist. p. 29.

clared to have been in the third century, with a rich variety of all sorts of metals; the inhabitants of Manchester, and the rest of the county slept upon skins, or beasts, and lay on the floor of their apartments. This was the practice universally in the first ages, and originally the custom of the Greeks and Romans. But the skins were afterwards changed for loose rushes and heather, as the Welsh a few ages ago lay on the former, and the Highlanders sleep on the latter to the present moment*. And the example of the Romans now suggested to the Mancunians the use, and the introduction of agriculture supplied them with the means, of the neater conveniency of straw-beds. For many ages the beds of the Italians were constantly composed of straw, and it still formed those of the soldiers and officers at the conquest of Lancashire. And from both our countrymen learnt the use of them at this period. But it appears to have been taken up only by the gentlemen; as the common Welsh had their beds thinly stuffed with rushes, as late as the conclusion of the twelfth century¹. And with the gentlemen it continued many ages afterwards. Straw was used even in the royal chambers of England, as late as the close of the thirteenth. Most of our Mancunian peasants lie on chaff at present. And straw-beds remain to this day general in France and Italy. But they were no longer suffered to rest upon the ground. The better mode that had antiently prevailed in the east, and long before been introduced into Italy, was adopted in Britain. And they were now mounted on pedestals. This, however, was equally confined to the gentlemen. The bed still continued on the floor among the common people. And the gross custom, that had prevailed from the beginning, was retained by the lower Britons to the last; and these ground-beds were laid along the walls of their houses, and formed one common dormitory for all the members of the family. This fashion continued universally among the inferiour ranks of the Welsh within these four or five

* See Giraldus's Des. Cambriae p. 888.

¹ Ibid.

ages, and with the more uncivilized part of the Highlanders nearly to our own times^m. And even at no great distance from Manchester, in the neighbouring Buxton, and within these sixty or seventy years, the persons that repaired to the bath are all said to have slept in one long chamber together; the upper part being allotted to the ladies and the lower to the gentlemen, and only partitioned from each other by a curtain.

The hearth of the Britons seems to have been fixed in the center of their great halls; as some of the common people even in the nearer parts of Scotland, to this day, have the fire in the middle of the room, and the family sit all around itⁿ. This was perhaps nothing more than a large stone, depressed a little below the level of the ground, and thereby adapted to receive the ashes. And about a century ago in Cheshire it was only the floor of the room, with the addition of a back or hob of clayⁿ. But it was now changed amongst the gentlemen for a portable fire-pan, raised upon low supporters, and fitted with a circular grating of bars.

P. 303.

L. 1—15 thus—And others were found in the same bed of sand sixty yards to the west of it, and in the year 1770. But, what is more remarkable, the number of pieces in the former discovery was not less than thirty or forty, and a quantity of slack was dug up with them. And these circumstances shew the coals to have been lodged upon the spot, before the road of the Romans covered it.

L. 20—26 thus—That the Britons in general were acquainted with this fuel, is evident from its appellation amongst us at present, which is not Saxon but British; and subsists among the Irish in their Gual, and among the Cornish in their Kolan, to this day.

^m Ibid. for the common Welsh having their beds upon the ground, and *W. L. and Crit. Diff.* p. 140 for the Welsh and Highlanders lying all in one apartment.

ⁿ *Gent. Mag.* March 1754, and *King's Vale Royal*, Pt. I. p. 10.

P. 307.

L. 8—14 thus—Lined the inside of their brazen vessels with it, and thereby prevented the tincture of brass. And receiving the knowledge perhaps directly from the Gauls, deriving it perhaps immediately from the Romans, they as probably practised the curious art which the Gauls had discovered, and which was recently used in making our bell-metal, of incorporating &c.

P. 309.

The first paragraph of Sect. IV. now runs thus.

AT the period of Cæsar's expedition into the island, the woods of Britain were replenished nearly with the same varieties of timber as the forests of Gaul. And the beech and fir are the only trees excepted by Cæsar. He asserts them both to have been strangers to Britain at that æra. This, however, the generality of our criticks have affected to disbelieve; and have appealed against it to the beech-covered hills of the Chiltern, the fir-topped mountains of Scotland, and the fir-apples discovered in draining our Marston Mere. But these arguments, surely, could never have been thought of sufficient moment to overthrow one of the best historical authorities in the world, if they had not fallen in with that frivolous petulance of criticism, which has lately been very prevalent among us, and continually exalting itself against the testimony of Cæsar. Cæsar has explicitly asserted the fact. Cæsar appears in general, whatever the humoursomeness of antiquarianism has suggested, to have gained very accurate informations concerning the island. And if, in such cases, the credit of cotemporary relations was to be superseded by hypothetical reasonings, and the authority of peremptory assertions overborne by problematical arguments, the faith of records would be destroyed at once, and the authenticity of history utterly annihilated.—I cannot, however, subscribe entirely to the relation of Cæsar. Other and more forcible arguments present themselves to the inquisitive mind, that supersede the authority of

of that great historian, and shew one of the trees to be a native of Britain.

P. 312.

L. 4—6 thus—But they introduced the beech into it. And the tree, which they found, was not precisely the same that now grows amongst us. Our moss-fir is daily experienced in Lancashire to be of a much more resinous quality than the other. It could not have acquired this property, by lying in the mossy soil. And it is therefore of a different species, and the same assuredly with the Scotch fir, now totally extirpated in England, but preserved in the Highlands of Scotland.

Nor was this the only tree which the Romans &c.

P. 318.

L. 13 and note " thus—Lib. xv. c. 23.—In the Phil. Transf. vol. LIX: p. 23 and vol. LXI. Pt. i. p. 136—169 is a dispute betwixt my learned friend Dr. Ducarrel &c. and the Hon. Mr. Daines Barrington, concerning the origin of the chestnut in England. The latter would gladly prove it to have been lately transplanted into the island, and from Spain probably. And the former would make it a native of the country. The arguments for its recent introduction have been overthrown, in the compleatest manner, by the Doctor and his two associates (p. 136—166). Nor has Mr. Barrington, in his reply (p. 167—169), even ventured to support them. And we may add to the reasonings one decisive observation, That the chestnut was in this island even as early as the twelfth century, was then common in it, was spread over the surface of the country, and even constantly grew wild in our woods. Giraldus Cambrensis, speaking of Ireland, says: *arborum—species quatuor, quas insula Britannica circa cultoris operam per se producit, hic deficiunt; castanus et fagus &c.* (Top. Hib. p. 739).—But, after all, is there not an error running through the whole controversy? And are not

* And this, I suppose, is the old fir of Ireland, thus described by Giraldus: Ireland (he says) abundat abietis, *thui et incensi matre* (Top. Hib. p. 739. Camden).—

all the disputants mistaken in their main position? The chestnut-tree is demonstrably an ancient inhabitant of the island. But it is not, therefore, a native. It may have been introduced in the earlier ages of our history. And, if my argument here from the Roman-British appellations be just, and reason suggests and history shews that it is, the tree was first brought into Britain by the Romans.

P. 319—320.

Among the various trees which the Romans introduced into Britain, the most curious undoubtedly was the vine. And it appears to have been very common in the island a few centuries ago. From the name of vineyard yet adhering to the ruinous sites of our castles and monasteries, there seem to have been few in the country but what had a vineyard belonging to them. The county of Gloucester is particularly commended by Malmesbury in the twelfth century, as excelling all the rest of the kingdom in the number and goodness of its vineyards. In the earlier periods of our history, the isle of Ely was expressly denominated the isle of vines by the Normans. Vineyards are frequently noticed in the descriptive accounts of Doomsday. And those of England are even mentioned by Bede, as early as the commencement of the eighth century.

That the Romans were the original introducers of the plant, we need no other testimony than the British appellations of it. Being brought by them into Gaul, it was denominated the Vigne by the natives. And, being carried by them into Britain, it was similarly called by the inhabitants the Guin-uydhen, the Guin-bren, the Guin-ien, or Pion-ras, as it is still denominated in the Welsh, Cornish, Armorican, and Irish dialects. These appellations, like the Gallick, do not directly signify the vine, and only speak of it characteristically as the wine-tree. And, as they shew the Romans to have been the first planters of it in both kingdoms, so this little peculiarity pretty plainly intimates

the natives of both to have been acquainted with the liquor, some time before they cultivated the tree. Such would naturally be the case of both. Such appears to have been actually the case with the Gauls. And the Caledonian Britons, who were strangers to the plant, were conversant with its produce before the middle of the third century.

The former was not brought into Britain in the first, but was introduced before the close of the third. And, confined as it would for ages be within the pale of the Roman government, it was transplanted into Ireland before the beginning of the eighth. But the grape, or, as with an agreeable simplicity it was called by the Britons, the corn of the tree, the wine-grape, and the apple of the vine, was not, as it now is, merely raised for the uses of the table. All the arts of the vigneron would naturally be introduced with the plant. They were carried with it into Gaul. And, that they came together into Britain, the good knowledge which the Caledonians appear to have had of the liquor is a presumptive evidence, and the British appellation of wine-tree for the vine seems a strong argument. But Doomsday exhibits to us a particular proof of wine made in England, during the period preceding the Conquest. And, after it, the bishop of Ely appears to have received at least three or four tuns of wine annually, as tythe, from the produce of the vineyards in his diocese; and to have made frequent reservations in his leases of a certain quantity of wine for rent. A plot of land in London, which now forms East-Smithfield and some adjoining streets, was with-held from the religious house within Aldgate by four successive constables of the Tower, in the reigns of Rufus, Henry, and Stephen, and made by them into a vineyard to their great emolument and profit. In the old accounts of rectorial and vicarial revenues, and in the old registers of ecclesiastical suits concerning them, the tithe of wine is an article that frequently occurs in Kent, Surry, and other counties. And the wines of Gloucestershire, within a century after the Conquest, were little inferior to the

French in sweetness. The beautiful region of Gaul, which had not a single vine in the days of Cæsar, had numbers so early as the time of Strabo. The south of it was particularly stocked with them; and they had even extended themselves into the interior parts of the country. But the grapes of the latter did not ripen kindly. And France was even famous for its vineyards in the reign of Vespasian, and even exported its wines into Italy. The whole province of Narbonne was then covered with vines: and the wine-merchants of the country were remarkable for all the knavish dexterity of our modern brewers, tinging it with smoke, colouring it (as was suspected) with herbs and noxious dyes, and even adulterating the taste and appearance with aloes. And, as our first vines would be transplanted from Gaul, so were they in all probability those of the Allobroges in Franche Comté. These were peculiarly fitted for cold countries. They ripened even in the frosts of the advancing winter. And they were of the same colour, and seem to have been of the same species, as the black Muscadines of the present day, which have lately been tried in the island, I think, and found to be fittest for the climate.

P. 323.

L. 15.—19 thus—With saddles. Those in the coins of the British sovereigns have not the smallest appearance of one. The Irish had none on their horses, even within these three or four centuries. And the British appellation of that covering is purely Roman, Sedile, Sadhell, or Saddle. In the annals of the Romans is it first mentioned. And the earliest person, that is noticed in history to have used it, is Constantine the Younger, the son and successor of the great emperor, and in the year 340. The necks of the garrons, however, were &c.

P. 324.

L. 15. thus—Fernandes. And the very word Brach, which appears from Shakspeare to have been used among us about two

* Ibid.

* Strabo p. 269.

* At Bath.

* Top. Hib. p. 738, Scillis equitando non utuntur.

centuries ago even for a lady's dog, is evidently the same with the Irish Brach, and a British appellation for a wild hound".

L. 26—34. thus—The mastiffs furnished with no sagacity or nose, but has an uncommon degree of vigour and courage. The fast hold which it takes with its teeth, and the general strength of its limbs, are incredibly great. And three of them have been always reputed a match for a bear, and four even for a lion. But we have some instances of their courage and vigour, that rise greatly above this general estimate. Henry VII. is said to have ordered one of them immediately to be hanged, in an exuberance of zeal for the pre-eminence of royalty, because it had the hardiness to engage singly with its lord and sovereign, the lion. And in the reign of Elizabeth and the year 1572, my lord Buckhurst, our ambassador at the court of France for a few weeks, one day produced an English mastiff before Charles IX; which alone and without any assistance successively engaged a bear, a pard, and a lion, and fairly pulled them all to the ground. These dogs are equally distinguished from others by a surly dignity of aspect, a genuine good-nature, and an honest fidelity. We have a breed of them at Manchester, that is enormously tall and large; and children frequently ride upon them in play. And just such an one is represented on this coin of Cunobeline, and a child appears mounted sideways upon it; the worthy animal waving its tail, and turning up its face, with a sensible satisfaction in its rider.



"Truth's a dog must to kennel; he must be whipped out, when the lady Brach may stand by the fire, and stink."

* Description of England prefixed to Hollingshead's Chronicle p. 231, taken from Cail opera, Jebb, p. 19. But the former fact is evidently a little misrepresented in both. They extend the king's order to all the mastiffs in the realm; when the nature of the case, and the correspondent order concerning the falcon (ibid.), shew it to have been confined to one of them.

P. 326.

L. 8—14 thus—And Symmachus, the cotemporary of Claudian, mentions seven Irish bull-dogs, *Septem Scotici canes*, at then first produced in the Circus at Rome to the great admiration of the people; who were so struck with their ferocity and boldness, the two characteristick qualities of this species, that they universally imagined them to have been brought over in cages of iron. James I. is also known to have singled out one of his fiercest lions in the Tower, and to have turned him loose upon a couple of our bull-dogs; curious to observe how far their spirit and activity extended. And, to the astonishment of the whole court, the dogs shewed no signs of apprehension, did not decline the combat, and even provoked it; sprung upon the lion, engaged him closely with an equal courage, and at last, in spite of all his efforts, mastered him, and threw him on his back.

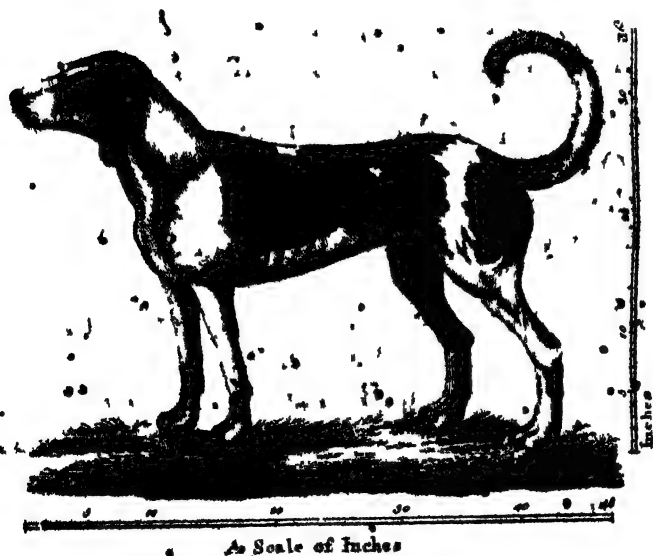
P. 330.

L. 9—19 thus—Southern hound. At Manchester it was noted by the observing eye of our poetical chorographer, Drayton, so early as the beginning of the last century, and in his rough and dancing numbers is thus strongly characterized, at one of the illustrious peculiarities of the country:

And for the third, the British hounds, whose chaires exceed,
Be those great race of hounds, the most-mouth'd of all
The others of this kind, which we our hunters call;
Which from their bellowing throats upon a sent so roare,
That you would surely think that the wide earth they tore
With their wide yawning chaps, as rent the clouds in funder,
As though by their loud cry, the lightning mock'd the
thunder.

And being lately carried from us into many of the neighbouring districts, and even into some of the southern counties, it there

retains the note of its recenter descent in its newer appellation of the Manchester or Lancashire hound. But it has long been neglected by carelessness or design. Its characteristick bulk has been gradually diminishing for some time. And this old and venerable breed is dwindling away into little more than a larger generation of harriers. To preserve, however, what nothing but the pencil can; and to perfect the account that I have given of this hound, I have here added a view of one of them; which was taken a few years ago from the life and in full proportion, and has been reduced into miniature for the present work by the same person who made the drawings for the former edition; that example of a strong and extensive genius un-depressed by poverty; and yet almost lost in obscurity, the modest Mr. Clarke of Salford.



These were some of the original hounds of the island. And the Romans seem to have introduced into the one, and to have added to the other, the present breed of our common spaniels and harriers. The former carries evidently the signature of its origin in the singularity of its name; the appellation of Spaniard being, a sufficient indication of its country, and the Roman termination, Hispaniolus or Spaniol, a full declaration of its Roman introducer. And the same race of our dogs is probably meant by the same denomination in these lines of Nemesianus,

Nec tibi Pannonicæ stirpis terminatur origo,
Nec quorum proles de sanguine manat IBERO,

Praised are the fires that own Pannonia's brood;
And praised the puppies of HISPANIA'S BLOOD;

And in these of Oppian,

Ἐξοχ' αἰζηλοὶ, μάλα τ' ἀγρευήρσι μελουῖαι,
Παιονες, Αὐσονιοὶ, Κάρες, Θρηκίαι, Ἰβηρες,

First on the field appear Aulsonia's race,
Thy dogs, O Garia, and thy hounds, O Thrace;
First from the hunter claim the favourite's meed
Ætonia's offspring, and HISPANIA'S BREED.

The harriers, I suppose, are equally foreigners with these; as their only game, the hare, will appear hereafter to have never been hunted by the primitive Britons. And they are probably Tuscans: Nemesianus has given us the following account of the Tuscan dog: and the description agrees exactly, I think, with the common harrier;

Quid & Tuscorum non est extrema voluptas
Sæpe canum; sit forma illis licet obsita villo,
Diffimilesque habeant catulis velocibus artus,
Haud tamen injucunda dabunt tibi munera prædæ;

Namque

Namque & odorato noscunt vestigia prato,
Atque etiam leporum secreta cubilia monstrant:

Nor on the file of hunter's list is found
The merit, Tuscans, of your native hound;
What though their form be thagg'd with roughening hairs,
Nor one faint semblance of the greyhound wears,
Still will the table thank their useful care,
Served with the frequent banquet of the hare;
They snuff her footsteps on the scented mead,
They round her mazes to her secret bed.

And from the union of these and our Manchester dogs, I suppose, was that race of harriers originally generated, which is as remarkable for beagles as the other is for hounds, and almost equally confined to Manchester. These are evidently the great hounds in miniature, preserving on a smaller scale and in fainter colours all the striking peculiarities of their size, their aspect, and their note. And they have hitherto escaped the particular observation of the curious, because they were placed in the immediate neighbourhood of the others. The brightness of the sun throws every lesser luminary into shade. And, had the greater breed been now lost in Manchester, as it has lately been in the south, and as, before the present history was published, it seemed likely to be in two or three generations amongst ourselves; these large and remarkable beagles would have appeared with peculiar lustre, and been considered equally by the historian and the naturalist, at present, as the valuable and only representatives of our antient hounds.

P. 333.

C H A P. X.

THE BRITISH PROVISIONS AND RECREATIONS BEFORE AND
 AFTER THE ROMAN ARRIVAL—THE WOODS, MOSSES,
 AND WILD BEASTS—THE STREETS, BUILDINGS,
 TRADES &c. OF MANCHESTER—AND THE
 BRITISH MARRIAGES, BURIALS,
 LETTERS, LANGUAGE, AND
 MILITARY ART.

I.

IN the whole round of intellectual entertainments, few things carry so agreeable an appearance to the curious mind as the history of human manners. And that lower species of patriotism, which shoots up instinctively in every breast, makes it particularly pleasing to view our own national customs genuine as they rise in our annals, and to see those accidental combinations of ideas or rational modes of opinion, which prevailed in the more distant ages of our fathers, faithfully represented in the mirror of history. Nor is this satisfaction confined to their sublimer exertions of the understanding, their theories of political science, or their taste in literature. It is even better felt on the survey of their little fashions and fancies in the more characterizing scenes of lower life, in the exhibition of their private manners, and the detail of their domestick œconomy.

The provision for the table among the original Britons was taken chiefly from their herds of kine, their goats, sheep, deer, and hogs.

¹ B. I. ch. i. §. 2. and Howel Dha f. II. c. 26. a. 7.

P. 334.

L. 1—12 thus—And the latter seem to have been the duck, teal, widgeon, and swan; the crane, stork, bustard, capercalze, and cock of the wood; the woodcock, quail, snipe, and heathcock or grouse; and the lark, the quoisst or stock-dove, and others. These are all natives of the island, as either the appellations of them in the British language, or the incidental notices of history, suggest to us. And none of them appear to have been prohibited, as some certainly were, by casual customs or religious obligations. The crane and the stork, once familiar to our tables upon great entertainments, and the indigenous inhabitants of our country, are now known to us only by relation. The former was common in Kent during the ninth century, among the mountains of Wales in the tenth, and in the fens of Lincolnshire, one of the isles of Sylley, and various parts of Scotland, to the beginning of the last. And both of them were residents in Ireland at the close of the twelfth; the storks, however being very rare there, and all black; but the cranes so numerous, as frequently to be seen in flocks of a hundred together. The Bustards also (or, as in the British mode of variation they were popularly called in the north, the Gusters) are pretty frequent in Ireland to this day; were found, though rarely, in the Mers of Scotland within these two centuries, and on the plains of Lindsey in Lincolnshire within one and a half; and still continue equally rare on Newmarket and Royston heaths and the downs of Salisbury. These birds are scarcely able to raise themselves from the ground because of their bulkiness, being even obliged to run against the wind, and beat their pinions, before they can take a flight; and are equally slow in their motions afterward. And for both reasons they are very shy, approachable by the fowlers only in covered carts; and are reckoned a very excellent dish in season. The capercalze or caperkelly, or, as its appellation signifies in Esse, the hobbit of the woods, seems to have been so called exaggeratingly from its size, being about the bigness of a turkey; and is therefore, like

the bustard, frequently denominated a wild turkey in English. This was once assuredly common to all the island, but from its feeding on the tender tops of fir-branches, and loving high and solitary mountains and woods, has now for ages been peculiar to those of the Highlands. And it was even there, and even two centuries ago, confined to the firwoods of Ross, Lochaber, and other mountainous parts of the country, being then highly prized for the delicate flavour of its flesh; and is at this day in still higher estimation because of its additional rarity. But the cock of the wood, which has been recently confounded with the capercalze, and even by our British zoologist himself, though it is strikingly distinguished by its inferiour size, the feathery covering of its legs, and its scarlet eyebrows, is about the bigness of a peacock, and is actually mentioned by Giraldus Cambrensis under the name of a *sylvestris pavo* or peacock of the woods. And it was once, like the capercalze, an inhabitant of England in all probability, as it was very common in Ireland during the twelfth century, and in the Highlands during the sixteenth; having gradually retired from England as it is now retreating from Ireland, on cutting down the woods that sheltered it; and is now very rare even in the latter and the Highlands, but much valued for the uses of the table^b. The markets of

^b See Top. Hib. p. 706 for *Grutæ* or Grouse; Howel Dha p. 25, b. I. ch. 10. f. 2. and note 22, Polyolbion p. 107 (pt. 2), D. of Engl. in Hollingshead, p. 34, and Lellai Hist. 1675, p. 24, for cranes; Smith's Cork vol. II. p. 329, Polyolbion p. 113 (pt. 2), Boethius Scot. Def. 1576, fol. 7, and Lellai Hist. p. 24, for bustards; Top. Hib. p. 705 and 706, for cranes and flocks; Lellai Hist. p. 24, and Bir's Letters p. 169, for the capercalze; and Top. Hib. p. 706, Pennant's Tour p. 278, Harris's Ware p. 172 and Smith's Cork vol. II. p. 328, and Lellai Hist. p. 24, for the cock of the wood.

Mr. Pennant in his Scotch Tour says thus: "Cock of the wood—formerly was common throughout the Highlands, and was called Capercalze and Auercalze, and in the old law-books Capercally" (p. 278—279). But bishop Lesley has accurately distinguished one from the other. And Mr. Pennant has totally omitted the real capercalze, as the author of the letters from the Highlands has equally omitted the cock of the wood, or confounded it with the black cock (see him p. 169). The bishop has noted all three. In Russia (says he)—*Loquhabria*, & illis montanis locis, non desunt abietes, in quibus avis quædam rarissima, capercalze, id est sylvestris equus, vulgò dicta, frequens sedet, corvo illa quidem minor [The bishop is greatly erroneous here in the size of his capercalze], quæ palatum dentium sapore longè gratissimo—delinit. Viçtat ex folis abietis extremis flagellis. *Alia*

Rome, in the reign of Vespasian, were supplied with geese even from Picardy and Flanders, and the flocks travelled all the way on foot thither; a much longer expedition for these birds than what has been so often admired among ourselves, their yearly journeys from Lincolnshire to London; and, when any of them tired, they were removed into the front, and so pushed on by the advance of those behind. And the Cheneros of Britain, most probably the Goosander of the present day, was particularly esteemed by the Romans as a dainty, and preferred by them for the table to most of the animals in the island.

P. 335.

L. 4 thus—Shores. And, when any object has been employed in the ministeries of religion, it has naturally such an odour of sanctity thrown over it, as must prevent it from being used in the common offices of life. Thus the hare, being made use of by the Britons in that curious inquisition into futurity which has always made a part of every, merely human, religion, was therefore interdicted the table. Thus also the goose and hen, which were equally interdicted the Britons, in all probability therefore were equally employed in augury among them. And their abstinence from fish seems to have resulted from the same principle. They exalted their rivers into divinities, and made the turbulent ocean around them an object of adoration. And some remains of the

an vñ etiam in his regionibus numerosa, superiore in uor, pulchra pedibus, palpebris in bricantibus; nostri galum tisonum dicunt. Est et alia natquam nisi in requis victitans, fastiano iam quidem minor, sed colore, utque partim sapore, haud dissimilis; nostri agrum taponum gallum appellat. This last is the black grouse of our mountainous leahs in the north of England, though men joined in But's Letters as peculiar to the Highlands.

Pliny lib. x. c. 22.—Anterini generis (says Pliny) sunt chenelopees, et, quibus laurices epulae non novit Britannia, Chenetotes, sero ante min res. The Chenes was not the wild-geese, being expressly distinguished from it. And yet it was of the goose kind. It was most probably the goosander, which corresponds exactly with the only mark in this description, in being less than wild goose. It is generally about four pounds in weight, while that is seven. And it is, what none of the kind are besides, of a beautiful aspect. The rest would repel, while this would provoke, the appetite of luxury or hunger. The head and upper part of the neck are of a shining green, the body is variegated with white and black, and the feet are a fine red. It is found in Lincolnshire &c.

worship

worship of both have continued to the present times, in the practices which the Scotch have preserved among their sequestered mountains and islands. The Highlanders to this day talk with great respect of the genius of the sea; will not bathe in a fountain, lest the elegant spirit that resides in it should be offended and remove; and never mention the water of rivers without prefixing to it the appellation of 'Excellent'. And in one of the western islands the inhabitants retained the custom to the close of the last century, of making an annual sacrifice to the genius of the ocean. A quantity of ale having been prepared by a general contribution against All-Saints day, and the whole body of the islanders being assembled on the shore, the occasional priest of the festival walked up to his middle in the sea, bearing a full cup in his hand; invoked the deity by the title of Shony or Water, supplicated his kindness towards them, and poured the liquor in libation to the god. And then they all concluded the anniversary with feasting, dances, and songs*. This was the reason probably, why the Britons never fed upon fish. The same inventive spirit of religion, which stamped divinity upon rivers and the ocean, which offered a sacrifice to the sea, and feared to offend the elegant genius of a fountain by bathing in it, would, in the full height of the superstition, naturally consider the scaly inhabitants of the sea and rivers as the little naiads of both, and as sharing a part of their divinity with them. And in the interior parts of the Highlands, where original customs are preserved the longest, and the lower ranks of people subsist only on a little oatmeal, milk, and blood drawn from their living cattle and boiled into cakes; even in such circumstances of distress for the necessary provision of life, the fishes of their brooks

* Mr. Macpherson's Introduction to the Hist. of Great Britain and Ireland p. 163—164.

* Harris's W. Islands, Ed. 2, p. 28—29 —And Shony is the same word as snakes the, British names of some rivers in these islands and on the continent, the Sena or Shann-on of Ireland, the Seine of France, the Senney of Brecknockshire, and the Seny of Leicestershire, which all signify only Water.

and lakes are seldom or never eaten by the natives to this day.
—But these were now laid open to the ravages of hunger and luxury among the provincials.

L. 28—29 thus—The same places, as those of Folkestone at present, which Mr. Twyne about two centuries ago commended above all the rest in the island, and therefore reasonably argued to be the genuine favourites of the antients.

P. 336.

L. 8 thus—The peacock was probably brought into Europe from the East-Indies, where it is universally common; but must have been introduced in some very early period of time, since even Pliny speaks of it only as an European. And it was a dish &c.

L. 19 thus—Brought into the island by the Romans. Here it is not considered as a bird for the table, but has been eaten by a few curious adventurers in feasting, and is said to be a delicate dish. And the Italians retain the fondness of their ancestors for it to this day. The domestick &c.

P. 339.

L. 1—7 thus—And a smaller breed of them, the same that are denominated the Grey-Moose or Wampooes in America, actually continued in Ireland to the twelfth century: being described by an author, the cotemporary of Henry the Second, among the wild beasts of the island; as fags little calculated for

¹ Birt's Letters vol. II. p. 121.—Mr. Macpherson, with his usual unhappiness of argumentation, contends in p. 163—164 against the notion of the Britons worshipping rivers and the sea, in direct opposition even to his own evidence, and in full contradiction to the custom of the western islanders and the testimony of Gildas. I mention not, by the latter, *montes ipsos*, aut *colles*, aut *fluvios*, quibus divinus honor a creto tunc populo cumulabatur (&c.).—Mr. Macpherson also informs us in p. 163, that the Highlanders speak with great respect of the Spirit of the Mountain. But he argues, notwithstanding, that the Britons never worshipped mountains; though the Highland practice plainly shews that they did, and though Gildas here expressly assures us of the fact: *montes ipsos*, aut *colles*, quibus divinus honor cumulabatur. And, if there were any wild beasts that could be said to be the peculiar and appropriate inhabitants of mountains, as fishes are of the sea and rivers, the British abstinence in all have naturally extended to those as these.

² Lambard's Kent, 1596, p. 170.

flight

flight because of their 'extreme bulkinés,' rather short in the body, but greatly superiour to all others in the largeness of their heads and dignity of their antlers. The large black moose would naturally be the first destroyed. And the smaller would continue the longest, because it could shelter itself the best.

Both, however, were only &c.

L. 14—17 thus—The Irish wolf-dog. Ireland, says an author who wrote two centuries ago, is not without wolves, or greyhounds to hunt them, that are bigger of bone and limb than a colt. Scotland, says another of the same period, in the first class of her hounds ranks a breed which is superiour to a yearling bull-calf in size, and used equally in hunting the stag and the wolf^b. And the buck-hound of the Britons; like the dog of Ireland, was grey-coloured, long-bodied, and well-scented, active enough to run down and strong enough to master a British stag. Both are therefore the same with that Irish greyhound, for which particular court was made by a Spanish nobleman to Henry VIII, and a privy seal issued to the lord deputy and council of Ireland; and which was even solicited as the most acceptable of all presents by the great Mogul in 1617. And all are the same with that old greyhound of the Highlands, which is now become as rare among them, as the other is in Ireland, but was formerly in great repute for the magnificent stag-hunts of the chiefs; being very swift, bold, and large, very strong and deep-chested, and covered with very long and rough hairⁱ.

But entirely different &c.

^b Stanyhurst's Desc. of Ireland in Hollingshead's Chron. p. 19, and Leisæi Hist. p. 13.—

ⁱ Ossian p. 4 and 81, vol. I, and p. 11 vol II; Pennant's Tour in Scotland p. 127 and 275; and Harris's Ware p. 166—167.—This dog was once common to the whole island assuredly, and seems from the following passage to have been so within these two or three centuries.
 "The fifth" (says Harrison, enumerating our dogs) "is a greyhound cherished for its strength, swiftness, and stature, commended by Bratius in his De Venatione, and not unremembered by Hercules Stroza in a like treatise, but above all others of Britain, where he saith, Et magna pars Landi mole Britannii." See D. of B. in Hollingshead p. 1230, 1586.

P. 340.

L. 17—19 thus—The wolf, which in some respects seems nothing more than a savager species of dogs, is therefore denominated *Madre Allaidh*, or the wild hound by the Irish to the present day, and was actually employed as a dog for hunting by the original inhabitants of North America. This animal is well known to &c.

L. 27—35 thus—The common cattle of the island, I suppose, must often have run wild along our heaths and forests; as the kind of Europe range freely in herds at present along the levels of Patagonia. And the wild cows and bulls of the country continued very frequent among us in the fourth century, and even for several ages afterward. These were merely of the usual size, but all milk-white in their appearance, all furnished with thick hanging manes &c.

P. 341.

L. 31—34 thus—This also explains that considerable difficulty in natural history, which is scarcely explainable on any other principle, the transportation of savage beasts from the continent into distant islands &c.

P. 342.

L. 12—14 thus—Romans; and those of the bull and bear are the great diversions of our dogs and populace at present. In some very antient constitutions of the Welsh it is expressly declared, that, of the nine sorts of wild beasts which were hunted, only three of them were baitable, and that the bear was one. And, as I have lately shewn, Norwich was obliged by the Saxons to furnish even the king with one bear annually, and six dogs for

* In the *Genuine History of the Britons Asserted*, I have hinted at another supposition. And the reader may decide betwixt them. The Gauls about Calais, as I have observed, being accustomed to see this island daily from their own shores, "soon passed over in all probability from more motives of curiosity,—perhaps stocked some of the nearer woods with wild beasts for hunting, and ages afterward settled &c." p. 99.

! Ray's *Synopsis Method. Quadr.*, 1693, p. 214.

baiting it. For these exhibitions edifices were constructed at Rome, of squared stone &c.

P. 343.

L. 21—26 thus—And in this state hawking remained, the favourite recreation of our gentlemen for many ages; and the predominant spirit of inclosing, and the fabrication of light fowling-pieces, have not yet banished it entirely from the kingdom. Driven from the south, and practised, I believe, in no one part of England at present, it has taken refuge in Scotland, and is still kept up by the gentlemen of the Highlands.

P. 344.

L. 3—4 thus—Roman-British remains among us. The Britons and Romans may even seem, perhaps to have particularly cultivated this diversion, and to have formed a remarkable species of harriers for the purpose. And the race remains at Manchester to the present moment.—When the great hound was lost there many centuries ago, the name and the breed would soon be forgotten together. And, on its re-appearance from the south, the seeming stranger assumed the denomination of the southern hound. But it had probably been coupled with the common harrier before it was destroyed among us, and had left its progeny in the present beagle behind it. And the fact perhaps happened about the Roman period. As the moose-deer became gradually rarer, and was at last exterminated in our woods, the moose-dog would be found more and more useless in its original dimensions and strength. And, the hare becoming a principal object in hunting, the strain would naturally be crossed with the harrier, to reduce its size, augment its speed, and yet preserve its form and note. Hence arose probably the generation of our Manchester beagles, the exact miniatures (as I have formerly observed) of our large hounds. And when this had been done, when the only peculiarities of the dog, that were now of any moment in the estimate of a mere hunter, had been happily

* Bir's Letters on the Highlanders v. II. p. 299, and Pennant's Tour p. 127.

transferred to another, it would be thrown aside, suffered to mingle casually with every species, and so be gradually diffused and lost. But it would naturally keep the same appellation in its diminished state, that it had borne before. And, when the parent breed became extinct, the new one would enjoy the denomination without a rival. Hence our Manchester beagles retain to this day the familiar and appropriate title of the Kibble-hounds; one equally confined as the race, and totally unknown among us as to its etymology or import. But the appellation is purely British, transmitted to us from our British ancestors, and remaining at present in the language of Ireland. The terms Cuib and Gilpe are both of them used by the Irish for their greyhound, and are evidently the same with our Kibble; as we have Kurak in Irish and Korug and Kurugl in Welsh for a Coracle, Kryd and Dygl in the latter for a cradle and a dish, and Greid-eal in the former for a grid-iron. And the name, which is thus applied in Ireland and at Manchester to two such different kinds of dogs as the beagle and the greyhound, properly signifies only a hound in general. Thus does the remarkable moose-dog of the Britons appear to have been distinguished among them by the peculiar denomination of the Kibble. And the Manchester beagles preserve to this moment the primary appellation that was given to the Manchester hounds. The latter were a new colony introduced into the parish from the south, and some time after the extinction of its original number. And the former are therefore more dispersed over the neighbouring country than they, and not marked, like them, with titles expressive of their derivation from Manchester.

The Spahiards used originally to dislodge the rabbits from their holes, with wild African cats that had their mouths muzzled; but afterwards employed the ferret in the sport. And, when the Romans introduced the rabbit into Italy and Britain, they brought in the same custom of attacking it with ferrets.

* Strabo. l. 214. and Pliny lib. viii. c. 55.

P. 346.

L. 16—17 Note " thus — Boetij Scot. Reg. Dēic. fol. 6. and Lēlæi Hist. p. 18. And hence is the popular story of the fierce wild cow of Dunsmore in Warwickshire, slain by Guy earl of Warwick.

L. 20—22 thus—P. 777. Gale's Scriptores from Doomsday.— In Ray's Synopsis Method. Quadr., 1693, Mr. Lhuyd acquaints us, that in some antient laws and customs of the Welsh, now preserved in MS. among them, there was one among other maxims of hunting, *sumnam seu præcipuam æstimationis ferinam esse urfi, leporis, & apri*; p. 214. And bears appear in Normandy and Scotland nearly to the conquest of England: see Gemeticensis p. 667. Camden, and Peasant's Tour p. 169.

P. 349.

L. 13—22 thus—A range of meadows upon it. Thus was the parish of Manchester overspread at this period with woods. And no parts of it seem to have been free from the trees, but the cultivated area and the moles.

P. 354.

At the end of the notes is this additional paragraph. To take off the seeming strangeness, which the notices in this section concerning the Lancashire moles may carry to some of my readers, it may be proper to observe, That the same causes have operated in a still more extraordinary manner, where their instruments have been greater and their scope of action larger. Where the former have not been merely brooks, or the latter confined to small valleys; but when rivers have concurred in the production, and the locus of operation has been the levels of our eastern coast; the effect has been much more astonishing, than any which I have here recorded. On deepening Wisbech river in 1635, at eight feet below the channel the workmen came to another, and found ~~as less than seven boats in~~ different parts of it. And, at Salters Lode, the adventitious earth was observed about 1660 to be ten feet deep, over a firm moorish soil of three
in

in thickness; to be succeeded by a bluish soft of earth, which was judged to be original silt, and by another layer of moorish soil below it, as thick as the former, but much firmer and clearer; and to be followed by a whitish clay, which appeared to be the natural ground. But, in digging through the moor at Whittlesea about the same time, at the depth of eight feet was found a perfect mold, and swaths of grass lay as they were mowed upon it. And, at Skyrbeck sluice near Boston, the labourers sunk sixteen feet, and then discovered even a smith's forge, furnished with all the requisite tools, horseshoes, and other implements of iron. See Dugdale's Hist. of Embanking, 1662, p. 178; &c.

P. 338.

L. 11—15 thus—By the Romans. This, however, would naturally be confined to the chiefs. And in these northern parts of England, and even in our neighbouring county of Chester, as late as the commencement of the last century, the common people had their fire in the midst of the house, and no chimney above to discharge the smoke.

The covering of edifices in the north &c.

L. 25—27 thus—These were equally so amongst ourselves in former ages, and continued even in Edinburgh beyond the beginning, and in most parts of Cheshire below the middle, of the last century.

P. 359.

L. 17—18 thus—The windows seem generally to have been &c.

L. 32—33 thus—And, that transparent fossil, Lapis Specularis or Ising-glass stone, which &c.

P. 360.

L. 7—14 thus—Present moment.

One or more wells would &c.

* See King's Vale Royal part I. p. 19.

* King's Vale Royal ibid. and Maitland's Edinburgh, 1753, p. 62.

P. 363.

L. 25 thus—Scotland. Nor was this all. Medicinal botany, originally the only branch of medicine, was even engrafted upon the stock of the Celtick religion; and the Druids of the Gauls and Britons were at once their physicians and priests. And the magick rites, which were practised with such a wild solemnity in our own island at this period, were merely the mixt effusions of medicine and superstition, each acting upon the other, and both heightening the whole. Magick, as Pliny has justly observed, was nothing more in its origin than the daughter of Medicine; calling out the secret powers of nature in the vegetable creation, and yet concealing their agency under the mantle of religion. And we have three or four plants pointed out to us by the antients, that were peculiarly the favourites of the druids. One was what they denominated the Samol, and which has been very differently interpreted, as the botanical mind had no standard of determination; but was probably, as the L and the R are frequently interchanged, the Seamar or wild Trefoil, to which the Irish Britons pay a particular attention at present, wearing it in their hats on St. Patrick's day under the diminutive appellation of Seamrog. This was esteemed an excellent remedy for all the diseases of their droves and herds, if it was bruised, and then mingled with the water that the cattle drank. But, when it was gathered in the swamps where it grew, it was constantly plucked by the left hand alone; and the simpler was fasting, never looked back while he gathered it, and deposited it no where till he put it into the watering-troughs. Another was Vervain, by which the druids pretended to predict future events, and from which they really extracted an urgent, that (besides its power to conciliate friendships and procure the accomplishment of every wish) was thought to be efficacious in preventing fevers and curing every other disease. And it was

* Pliny lib. 30. c. 1. *Dryas*,— hoc genus rarum medicorumque.

* Ibid.

* L. xxiv. c. 11.

gathered

gathered about the commencement of dog-days and in a moonless night, the leaves, the stem, and the root were dried separately and in the shade; and an infusion of it in wine was prescribed for the bite of a serpent. The Selago also, a kind of Savin, was esteemed a preservative against every calamity, and the smoke of it beneficial for any complaints in the eyes. And the Mistletoe of the oak, which was then as rarely found upon that tree as it is at present, naturally became therefore a peculiar object of regard in a botanical system of religion; was thought, when it was taken in a draught, to give fruitfulness to barren animals, and to be an useful antidote to poisons; and was called by a Celtick appellation, that shews it to have been considered as an universal medicine. Thus, out of four prescriptions that have been communicated to us from the Celtick pharmacy, the samol was thought a remedy for all the diseases in hogs and kine, the vervain was a cure for every disorder in man, and the mistletoe was denominated the All-healing plant. And, in these first stages of her progress, Medicine would naturally be struck with astonishment at the virtues which disclosed themselves in plants; and, by the influence of her associates, Credulity and Superstition, be strongly tempted to carry her faith into extravagance, and attribute infallibility and universality to almost every remedy. Thus the vulgar mind, we see at present, is ready to receive every medicine that is obtruded upon it by the hand of quackery; as equally applicable in all the stages of a disorder, and certainly successful in all its operations. The mistletoe of the oak is to this day considered as a curiosity by our naturalists, and within a century and a half was reputed very medicinal by our physicians, and composed a regular part of the *Matéria Medica* of our shops. And the many prescriptions which remain traditional all over the kingdom, that either work as amulets on the fancy in agues and the like disorders, or apply the powers of plants to the bodies in diseases of a more fixed and inveterate nature, and are generally the only medicines of

J. xiv. c. 9. — L. xiv. c. 11. — L. xvi. c. 44. and Selden on Polyolbion. p. 153.

our peasants at any distance from Manchester, have been mostly derived, I apprehend, like those of the Highlanders mentioned above, from the botanical and medical societies of the Britons.

L. 32 and note 6 thus—Brick is Brike, plural Bricion, in Irish.—Mr. Macpherson, in p. 222. of his Interpretation, asserts the Britons to have had bricks, on the pretended authority of Herodian lib. vii. But in this, as in five hundred passages besides, he has adopted that strange mode of reasoning which has been used by so many of our historical writers, of applying to the Britons every trait of character which occurs concerning the Germans, without attempting to prove them of the same blood and in the same circumstances, and when both were very different.

P. 364.

L. 11—16 thus—Window is yet provincially denominated Windor in Lancashire &c. or the passage for air; as that for people was peculiarly called The Door. And the word is Welsh, *Uynt Dor* signifying the passage for the wind.

P. 365.

L. 1—7 thus—The primitive Britons are charged by two of the most respectable historians among the Romans, with the gross barbarisms of a community of wives; incestuous loves, and unnatural mixtures. And the accusation is too surely as just, as it is scandalous. A community of wives was the principal crime; and the incestuous and unnatural cohabitations were merely the result of that. The Britons formed themselves into a strange sort of matrimonial clubs, which generally comprehended ten or twelve families; and each husband had free access to each wife in it. And, as these associations would most naturally consist of the nearest relatives, brothers carried on an intercourse with their sisters-in-law, and daughters-in-law became the concubines of their fathers.

L. 24—26 thus—Incorporated into the society. And an &c.

L. 20 thus—Husband Cairbar. And some of the wilder Irish retained the custom, in part, within these two or three centuries. The whole &c.

P. 368.

L. 6—17 thus—Heroes. And they have been preserved in many families of the Highlanders, nearly to the present period. Nor is the practice yet forgotten in Wales. The lower women among the Welsh frequently gird themselves in their pregnancy, to this day, with the cast skin of a snake as a charm.

The mode of interment &c.

P. 369.

L. 18 thus—The body of the king in it. Even the century after Vortigern, a person dying in the presence of the celebrated saint, Columba, and in the isle of Sky, it is expressly related that he was buried in this manner; *Socii congesto lapidum acervo sepelierunt* *. And the practice is retained in part among all the remains of the provincial and extra-provincial Britons to this day. When a wretch dies by the act of suicide in Ireland, and is buried, as in England, at the intersection of two highways; or when the greatest of criminals suffer the sentence of the law either in Ireland, Wales, or Scotland, and are interred under the gallows, the passengers for some time afterwards have a custom of throwing stones upon their graves, till they have raised a considerable heap over them. And a proverbial sort of curse prevails both in Wales and Ireland, of wishing an enemy what Hector wishes to Paris, to have a Cairn over him, or (in the language of Homer) to be clad in a coat of stone †. But the original custom is still more perfectly preserved in Scotland. If a person there suddenly falls down dead, or loses his life by any accident in his journey, whether the fact happens on a road or in the field, a rude heap

* Stanyhurst's Def. of Ireland in Hollinghead, p. 45.

† Adamnan's Life of Columba lib. I. c. 33. in Colgan's Act. Sanctorum Hiberniæ, vol. II.

P. 345.

‡ Δεινὸν ἔσθ' ὅστις ἀνὴρ περὶ ὁδὸν πέσῃ. Iliad. lib. iii.

§ Ware, Harris, p. 142, and Moan p. 214.

of stones is immediately thrown together upon the spot by the first who discovers the corpse; and the common people contribute to increase the pile, by adding each of them a stone to it. And there are some persons so religiously scrupulous in this respect, that they will turn out of their way for a quarter of a mile, in order to fetch a stone for the purpose; as the neglect, they apprehend, will be punished by some subsequent misfortune to them.

In these barrows &c.

P. 300:

L. 6—7 thus—Third century.

Thus formed, these barrows have been generally preserved inviolate to our own times, by the reverentialness which the religious principles of the Britons bestowed upon them. And of this we have very lively traces, remaining among the Highlanders at present. They are firmly persuaded to this moment, that if a dead body shall be known to lie unburied, or to be removed from its sepulcher either by malice or accident, and immediate care is not taken for the interment of it; storms and tempests will arise to destroy their corn, overturn their cabins, and carry desolation through their country. And the late construction of the military roads in Scotland afforded a remarkable proof of the notion. As the way which runs from Crief northward was carried on through Glenalmond, an enormous stone was removed that crossed the intended line of it, and a British sepulcher found below, containing ashes, fragments of bones, and half-burnt stalks of heath. And, as soon as it was known to the Highlanders of the country, they assembled in arms even from distant parts of it, and formed themselves in a body; carefully collected the relics, marched with them in a solemn procession to a new place of burial, and there paid the military honours to the deceased by discharging their musquets over his grave.

* Birt's Letters vol. II. p. 102—103, and Gent. Mag. May 1751.

† Birt's Letters vol. II. p. 302.

• Ibid. p. 299—300.

L. 10 thus—Mr. Rowland, Mr. Carte, and Dr. Macpherson (and from them Dr. Henry in his Hist. of G. Britain vol. I. 1778, p. 445) have endeavoured to vindicate the Britons, Mona p. 246, History p. 71, and Crit. Diff. p. 140; and all equally in vain. Their argument is, That, all the members of a family sleeping (as I have shewed before) in one apartment together, they were therefore supposed by foreigners to have a promiscuous copulation. But, to make the apology correspondent to the charge, it should have been shewn, not merely that one family, but that ten or twelve, thus slept together.

P. 372—373.

L. 33 of p. 372 to L. 8 of p. 373 thus—In the one and of Agricola in the other. And the Cornish, Welsh, Scotch, and Irish &c.

P. 373.

L. 11—19 thus—To the Italian. And the long settlement of the Italians in Britain as naturally made a free opening for their language. The latter became nearly as familiar to the ears, as the former to the eyes, of the Britons. And the language seems to have been generally spoken by the gentlemen after the coming of the Romans, and even to have been understood by many before it. Hence, in that period during which Strabo informs us that the Romans became well acquainted with the island, though they had not yet formed a settlement within it, and in which we know the Britons to have introduced a mint from the Gallick continent, we see so many of their current coins bearing Roman inscriptions. And hence we find the epitaphs of the British monarchs, even after the departure of the Romans, all uniformly written in the language of Italy. Such is Pabo's, such is Eneon's, and such Cadvan's, all three in the isle of Anglesey only. Hence also, which is very remarkable, the parental appellations among our superiour ranks at present are purely

¹ Strabo p. 306, and ch. ix. f. 1. before.

Roman, while those among the vulgar are absolutely British &c. And, though the Italian could never have &c.

P. 374.

L. 2—6 thus—Arms. And, when Ostorius took possession of his government here, he disarmed even such of the allies as he suspected of hostile designs. But, on the peaceable &c.

L. 26—28 thus—Romans, and raised in rotation among the subjects by the monarchs.

When it was requisite for the Britons to call out their warriors into the field, they used a method that was particularly marked by its expeditiousness and decisiveness, and remains partially among us to this moment. They raised a cry, which was immediately caught up by others, and in an instant transmitted from mouth to mouth through all the region. And, as the notice passed along, the warriors snatched their arms, and hurried away to the rendezvous. We have a remarkable description of the fact in Cæsar, and there see the alarm propagated in sixteen or seventeen hours through 160 miles in a line. *Ubi major atque illustrior incidit res, says he, clamore per agros regionesque significant; hunc alii deinceps excipiunt, et proximis tradunt: ut tunc accidit; nam quæ oriente sole Genabi gesta essent, the insurrection of the Carnutes and the massacre of the Romans, ante primam confectam vigiliam in finibus Arvernorum audita sunt; quod spatium est millium passuum circiter 160^a.* And the same practice has been retained by the Highlanders to our own time. When the lord of a clan received intelligence of an enemy's approach, he immediately killed a goat with his own sword, dipped the end of a half-burnt stick in the blood, and then gave it, and the notice of the rendezvous to be carried to the next hamlet. The former symbolically threatened

^a The Tat or Dad of the vulgar are British for a father, as Mama for a mother. And the Tata, Papa, and Mama of genteler life are all Roman.

^b Cæsar, p. 135.

fire and sword to all his followers, that did not instantly repair to the latter. The notice was dispatched from hamlet to hamlet with the utmost expedition. And in three hours the whole clan was in arms, and assembled at the place appointed¹. This was within these few years the ordinary mode, by which the chieftains assembled their followers for war. The first person that received the notice set out with it at full speed, delivered it to the next that he met, who instantly set out on the same speed, and handed it to a third. And, in the late rebellion of 1745, it was sent by an unknown hand through the region of Brairdalbin; and, flying as expeditiously as the Gallick signal in Cæsar, traversed a tract of thirty-two miles in three hours². This quick method of giving a diffusive alarm is even preserved among ourselves to the present day, but is applied, as it seems from Cæsar's account above to have been equally applied among the Celtæ, to the better purposes of civil polity. The hutesium and clamor of our laws, and the hue and cry of our own times, is a well-known and powerful process for spreading the notice and continuing the pursuit of any fugitive felons. The cry, like the clamour of the Gauls of the summons of the Highlanders, is taken from town to town and from county to county. And a chain of communication is speedily carried from one end of the kingdom to the other.

Thus raised, each corps would march to the place &c.

P. 375.

L. 1—2 thus—Such was, in fact, the usual disposition of the British forces. And every principle of policy and honour concurred to bind the followers closely to their chief. The strong attachment of the Highland clans to their lairds is well known. And we see exactly the same vigorous and implicit fidelity professed and practised among the Gauls and Britons. When Litavius was detected in his design of causing a defection

¹ Offian vol. I. p. 160, a note.

² Birt's Letters vol. II. p. 227, and Pennant's Tour p. 164.

among the Ædui, says Cæsar, he fled to Gergovia, and was attended by all his retainers; as, according to the Gallick customs, it was criminal for them to desert their lords in the greatest extremity of distress; quibus [clientelis] nefas morè Gallorum est, etiam in extrema fortunâ deserere patronos¹. This is evidently as striking a picture, as could be drawn even by a modern hand, of a Highland clan. And two clans of Britons in these north-western parts of England, that in the sixth century broke out into rebellion with their chiefs, against a king equally feligrous and generous, and for so ridiculous an object as a couple of dogs and a hawk's nest, were highly extolled at the time, and are greatly celebrated by a Welsh author of the tenth century, for their exemplary loyalty to their lords. One of them obstinately continued in rebellion after their chieftain was defeated and slain, and maintained a series of daily engagements for no less than six weeks together, in order to revenge his death; and the other, after the defeat, attended their lord in his flight, accompanied him even into Ireland, and there devoted themselves to a perpetual exile with him. And they have therefore been transmitted with applause to posterity by their cotemporaries, and the Welsh author above, and distinguished by the highest and most honourable appellation that either of them thought they could give, that of The two loyal clans of Britain^m.

These forces &c.

P. 376.

L. 14—15, thus — Armies afterwards, the disposition that was used among the latter. Thus in 556, more than 100 years after the departure of the Romans from the island, and at the fight of Beranbury against the Saxons, the Britons ranged their numerous army in nine divisions; three forming the front-line, three the rear-guard, and three the center; and the archers,

¹ Cæsar p. 155.

^m Caric vol. I. p. 211.

spearmen,

spearmen, and cavalry were drawn up in the Roman order of battle; *viris sagittariis et telorum jaculatoribus equitibusque jure Romanorum dispositis.* And, even thirty-five years afterwards, the Britons posted their troops, like the Romans, in distinct divisions, *more Romanorum acies distinctè admoverent;* while the Saxons rushed upon them, as at the former engagement, in one close and confused column.

P. 377:

C. H. A. P. . XI.

THE MANUFACTURES ESTABLISHED IN BRITAIN BEFORE
 AND AFTER THE SETTLEMENT OF THE ROMANS — THE
 FOREIGN AND INLAND COMMERCE OF THE BRITONS
 — THE STATE OF RELIGION AMONG THEM
 — AND THE ECCLESIASTICAL GOVERNMENT BROUGHT IN BY
 CHRISTIANITY.

I.

WHEN guilt had introduced the principle of shame into the mind, and made a covering requisite to the deficiencies of the body; when vengeance had charged the seasons with inclemency and armed the elements with unkindness against the votary of sin, and an artificial warmth became necessary to the health of his frame; the skins of beasts would naturally be the first cloathing of man. The flocks and herds about him presented their woolly or hairy garments to his hand. And the Mosaical records demonstrate him to have used them. This species of cloathing continued regularly among the descendants of Adam, for a long succession of ages. And our own Britons, in particular, retained it to the days of Cæsar, and even some of them, the inhabitants of an isle on the western coast of the Highlands, very nearly to the present times. But it was &c.

• Martin's St. Kilda p. 109, 1698.

P. 378.

P. 378.

L. 28—30 thus—Actually spread, over the whole face of the island. The Highlanders were in the third century, and are to this day, possessed of a manufacture of plaiding; and the striped mantles, which are made of it, they denominate Breacan. And the Welsh had equally a manufacture in the twelfth; and the coarse rough cloth, which they fabricated, was popularly known among them by the similar appellation of Brychan. Such was the introduction of a woollen manufacture into Lancashire, &c.

✓ P. 380.

L. 22—26 thus—And the Caledonians retained these primitive ropes in the third century. The nations to the north of the Baltick had them in the ninth or tenth. And the inhabitants of the western isles of Scotland make use of them at present; cutting the skin of a seal, or the raw and salted hide of a cow, into long pieces, and fastening the plough to their horses with them; or even twisting them into strong ropes of 20 or 30 fathoms in length. But these, in the south of our island and on the continent, were early superseded by the application of iron chains to this purpose. The very maritime and commercial nation of the Veneti, that was so intimately connected with the Belgæ of Britain, had iron chains for its cables in the days of Cæsar. And the astonishing temple of Stonehenge, which lies in the dominions of the Belgæ, and was plainly the work of their improved architecture, could not have been constructed without the assistance of chains. But, in the more distant and refined countries of the south, both thongs and these had long given way to the use of vegetable threads, &c.

^b For the Highlanders see Birt's Letters v. II. p. 143, Martin's Western Islands p. 57, and Crit. Diff. p. 166; and for the Welsh see Giraldus p. 888.

^c Martin's Western Islands p. 65, and Macaulay's St. Kilda, 1764, p. 132.

^d Cæsar p. 55, Strabo p. 297, and Sect. 3.

P. 384.

L. 13 thus—Differt. p. 325.⁶ But this point has been more amply treated, since the first edition, in the *Genuine History of the Britons Asserted against Mr. Macpherson*, p. 178—181. And to both accounts let me add, That in the time of Columba, who lived in the sixth century, we see a vessel lined with leather, *pellicum tectum, navis penetrales*, which went with oars and sails, and had several mariners on board, scudding before a storm, *plenis velis*, for fourteen days together, without foundering; carried on to the north beyond the track of any former navigators, *ultra humani excursus modum*; and yet, after all, safely gaining her port (Adamnan's *Life of Columba*, written in the eighth century, l. ii. c. 42. p. 362, in *Colgan's Acta Sanctorum Hiberniæ* v. II).

P. 386.

L. 22—24 thus—Was discovered in St. Mary's, I think, which bore directly into the sea, and pointed towards the shore of Cornwall; and even many of them were known to be well stored with the metal within these two centuries*. And the cargo &c.

P.¹ 387.

L. 22—25 thus—Narbonne. And the Veneti of Gaul were the merchants, that resorted to the isle of Wight with their vessels, that bartered with the Britons for their metal, and transmitted it across the continent afterwards¹.

This isle, which is now separated from the remainder of Hampshire by a channel little more than half a mile in breadth about the point of Hurst-castle, was then a part of the &c.

* Harrison's D. of E. prefixed to Hollinghead, p. 34.

¹ Strabo p. 297. See also Cæsar p. 52 and Richard p. 4.

P. 390.

L. 15—16 thus—Europe, and of the silvery marle or chalk of Kent and Essex, which was shipped off for the marshy countries on the Rhine; bears &c.

P. 392.

L. 11 thus—P. 88.

It is Dr. Borlase, who has ascribed this effect to an earthquake &c., and endeavoured to fix it at a very distant period. But, as I have here shewn the ravages of the sea to have arisen from certain gradual and progressive causes, so they seem not to have reduced the islands to any thing like their present state, till these three or four centuries. “The violence of the sea” (says Harrison in his Description of England, dated 1586) “hath devoured the greatest part of Cornewall and Devonshire on either side: and it doth appeere yet by good record, that whereas now there is a great distance between the Syllan Isles and point of the land’s end, there was of late yeares, to speke of, scarselie a brooke or drain of one sadam water betweene them, if so much, as by those evidences appeereth, and are yet to be seene in the hands of the lord and chiefe owner of those isles” (Prefixed to Hollingshead’s Chron. p. 236, 1586). The distance here betwixt Cornwall and the Sylley isles is certainly contracted too much. But the whole serves strongly to shew the original distance between them to have continued a good while below the Conquest.

P. 395.

L. 1—2 thus—The elements, and the ocean; mountains, rivers, and rocks; imaginary intelligences, and departed spirits; would next &c.

* In Canfigeter de Brittenburgo, Hagæ Comitum, 1734, is this inscription found in *Zetland*, p. 14, *Deæ Neptalennia obmerces rectè conservatas Secundur. Silvanus Negotiator Cretarius Britannicianus votum solvit lubens merito.* It is also, with a little variation, in *Reinesius* p. 190 and *Gale’s Antoninus* p. 43.

Q 2

P. 396—397.

P. 396—397.

L. 35—36 of p. 396 to L. 1. p. 397. thus—Kingdom, concur to shew us. They contrived to raise the most enormous blocks of stone, a quarry almost in a single pillar; and to balance them as it were upon air. And all this &c.

P. 399.

L. 20—29 thus—Mr. Macpherson, in his wild efforts to vindicate his countrymen, in the Britons, from the charge of idolatry, has asserted them not to have worshipped either the heavenly bodies, mountains, or rivers, the wind, or the ocean (Introduction p. 159—166). But that the Britons actually paid adoration to the ocean, to rivers, and to mountains, I have shewn decisively before from Mr. Macpherson's own facts, the recent practice of the Western Islanders, and the express attestation of Gildas (b. I. ch. x. l. 1). And we have as good proof of their adoring the others. It appears from Mr. Macpherson himself, that his countrymen speak to this day with as great respect of the spirit of the sun and the storm, as of the genius of the hill, the fountain, or the sea (p. 163—164). And therefore it obviously follows, that they must have been equal worshippers of all. Mr. Macpherson also shews us in p. 162, and we had been shewn it before in Critical Dissertations p. 314, that there is a large heath in Scotland betwixt Badenoch and Strathspey, on which are many circles of stone, or British temples, and which is therefore denominatèd Slia-Grhannas or the plain of the sun to this day. And, among the Roman-British remains in the south of Scotland, we have an altar expressly inscribed Apokimi Granno or to the British God of the sun (Horsley p. 206). In the Confession of St. Patrick, which he wrote as an epistle to the Irish heathens, he calls them off from their idolatry to the sun, by declaring the everlasting punishment denounced against all who adore it (Ware, Harris, p. 122). And we see the monarch of Ireland, at the same period, swearing to the performance of a stipulation by two of the national divinities, the sun and the wind (ibid).

P. 402.

P. 402.

L. 1—5 thus—Began in the period of the apostles, and has remained ever since in all the Christian nations of the world. No other made its appearance in the church till the year 1541. And no other obtains in it at this moment, except in a few societies of West-Europeans, that, compared with the great body of Episcopal Christians over all the world, appear very insignificant and trifling. This was particularly established in Britain.

P. 495.

L. 16—21 thus—Lib. iii. c. 4.—But how vainly does Mr. Camden talk of a bishop of Gloucester in these days, p. 255; relying in this, as in his account of the Wallbrook and Flamen of London, p. 304—305, on Geoffrey or as redoubtable an authority.

The story of king Lucius also, which has been so greatly canvassed by our historical critics, is in all probability spurious. And the two coins &c.

P. 406.

CHAP. XII.

THE STATE OF THE ROMAN LEGIONS IN BRITAIN BEFORE
THE DEPARTURE OF THE ROMANS — THE GREAT
REASONS OF THEIR DEPARTURE EXPLAINED —
AND THE EXTENT OF THEIR EMPIRE, AND
DISPOSITION OF THEIR FORCES,
IN THE ISLAND AT IT.

I.

IN the two military municipies and the seven military colonies, which were planted by the Romans in the island, the lands assigned to the legionaries would regularly descend to their heirs. The very nature of such assignments necessarily requires that they should. And the continuance of the same legions in the same municipies and colonies for three or four centuries together, which was the case particularly with the sixth, plainly proves that they did. Thus inherited, the lands were virtually military feuds in themselves, and virtually enjoyed by military tenures from the emperor. And the male descendants of the original legionaries would be all equally legionaries by birth, at the military age would all engage by turns in the duties of the garrison at home, and all by turns be draughted out for the occasional services of the island abroad.

P. 410.

L. 33 thus — Revised the Attacotti in Lenox, equally omitted by Ptolemy, and equally subjected by him to the Damnii^a; extending &c.

^a He carries the Damnii from the Selgovæ on the south-west to Victoria (or the Tay) on the north-east, and from the Gæwni to the Epidii; giving them all the intermediate regions, that belonged to the Horestii, Attacotti, and Damnii Albani.

P. 412—413.

Last line of p. 412 to second line of p. 413 thus — In Surry.
And it was at this period &c.

P. 414.

L. 2—5 thus—Though, as king of the Cassii, he lay at a distance from the southern coasts; the intimate acquaintance of the Romans with his name and capital, though with relation to them he was only an inland monarch; and the appellation &c.

P. 415.

L. 27—28 thus—Therefore denominated the Fir-Mæ-at or the Men of the Plains.

P. 417.

L. 34—35 thus—They were not a number of &c.

P. 421.

L. 22 thus—Ossian p. 5, &c). See this, since the first edition of this work, more fully discussed in the Genuine Hist. of the Britons asserted, p. 225—260.—But since the first edition I have also observed, that Richard in p. 32 places all the Caledonians ultra Vararem, making this river by mistake to flow to the west as well as the north of the Roman conquests. And this, I think, reconciles him with himself better than the supposition before. But let the reader judge. Either way there is a mistake in him.—Ptolemy &c.

P. 423.

L. 8—10 thus—See Genuine Hist. of the Britons asserted, p. 136—137.—A. Marcellinus &c.

P. 427.

P. 427.

L. 15—16 thus—Celtæ by Strabo and Appian^b. And they are equally asserted to be Gauls by Diodorus &c.

L. 31—32 thus—Cimbri. And, what is equally surprizing, and has been equally unnoticed by the criticks, the Welsh distinguish England by the name of *Eloegr* or *Liguria* even to the present moment. In that irruption these Saxons, Ambrons, or Ligurians composed a body of more than thirty thousand men, and were &c.

P. 430.

L. 21 thus—Down; and having the Logia or Lagan, which falls into Carrickfergus Bay, &c.

P. 432.

L. 6—7 thus—For their metropolis. And the latter was probably that city near Limerick, the site of which is still famous, and retains the appellation of Cathair or the fortress; and where the remains of streets, and other marks of a town, may yet be traced. The Cangani &c.

P. 434.

L. 16—18 thus—Must equally (I apprehend) have possessed all Galloway west of the Dee, and have &c.

P. 437.

L. 9—10 thus—Island. And, so generally inhabited, it naturally received &c.

L. 19—20 thus—Diofna-Fael or Dyfn-Wall. The channel betwixt France and England is denominated by a writer of the eighth century only, *Sinus Vallicus* or the Gallick-strait. And as the Dutch and Germans call the French by the name of

^b Appian says, that all Italy was greatly afraid of the Celtæ, till the Romans under Marius defeated the Cimbri; p. 1169, Amstel. 1670.

^c O'Halloran's Introduction to the Hist. and Ant. of Ireland, p. 37.

Walls and Walloons to this day, so the Saxon Chronicle speaks of the Britons by the title of the Brit-walas or Brit-walana^d. The denomination &c.

P. 430

L. 10—15 thus—Britons. Thus the appellation of a fortress, Kadair and Kathait, is now pronounced Kahir in the Irish, and was formerly resolved into Guiher, and is now melted into Kaer and Gaer, in the Welsh^e; and the names of Cathbait, Cruthgall, Sithfadda, and the like, are pronounced &c.

L. 19—26 thus — Names of Rauthmell, Rathbone, and Withnell in Lancashire; and a variety of other words, in every part of the island, suffering the same elision in conversation^f. Thus also the appellation of a district in Caledonia, which was antiently written Ar-Gathel, is now &c.

P. 439.

L. 8—10 thus—Woodlanders. Guylh-t and Guel-z import among the Irish, the Welsh, and the Armoricans, a man of the Guylh, &c.

P. 440.

M B M.

The note here is removed to its proper place in the notes.

P. 444.

L. 8 thus—In Ullin^g or the county of Down^h, and &c.

^d See Sax. Chron. p. 11 and 12, and Adamnan's life of Columba l. ii. c. 34. Colgan, vol. II. p. 358, and note p. 384.

^e See Nennius c. 8, Guiher Cet Guely, or Caer Kidwelly. And the same elision runs through all the Celtic, as, in the Gallick Rhodanus or Rhone, Matrona or Marne, &c.

^f Thus in the Saxon Ethelward pronounced Elward, &c. and in the English Clothe's Clo's, Them 'Em, Boatwain Bofon, North'an i South Nor and Son, &c. &c.

^g Harris's Ware's Ant. p. 44.

P. 450.

L. 6. thus—In an address of Valerius Flaccus to Vespasian, he says thus,

Tuque o pelagi cni major aperti
Fame, *Caledonius* postquam tua carbasa ~~venit~~
Oceanus. Phrygiot prius indignatus Iulos.

Here we see the word, *Caledonius*, applied even to the British Channel, to the sea which is said to have disdained the yoke of Cæsar by destroying his vessels. And, even at the death of Vespasian, the Romans had not yet entered the real Caledonia at all. And in the Genuine Hist. of the Britons I have produced another instance exactly correspondent to this, which shews the coast adjoining to this sea, and the very shore at which Cæsar's navy was destroyed, to have been called Caledonia as early as the reign of Nero. See p. 124.

P. 451.

L. 8—14 thus—"Richard p. 53.—" Ammianus lib. xxvii. c. 8, &c.

M E M.

For a still further elucidation of this portion of History, see the Genuine History of the Britons asserted against Mr. Macpherson, written since the first edition, and confirming and improving the notices here delivered.

P. 453.

L. 19—27 thus—Thus Ostorius, as Tacitus informs us, carried a regular chain of camps along the Severn and the Upper Avon, the Avon of Gloucestershire, Warwickshire, and Northamptonshire, and the genuine and long-lost Antona of that historian; and afterwards continued it, as fact seems plainly to shew us, along the Nen of Northamptonshire to the marshes of

of the eastern coast. A second series was also drawn from the Eden to the Tyne, before the reign of Hadrian. And a third was &c.

L. 36 thus—By crossing the Kelvin from the country of the Attacotti below Bemulie, and afterwards &c.

P. 454.

L. 3—6 thus—And the Britons again passing the forts betwixt the friths in the reign of Antoninus Pius, and invading the land of the Novantes; Lollius united the former by another, and carried the wall, and the forts into the country of the Attacotti, and nearly up to their capital.

L. 15 thus—All the Caledonians, and had actually reduced the Attacotti. The walls &c.

P. 458.

L. 33—34 thus—The first descent upon the provinces, which had been attempted from that country with a view of conquest, it must &c.

P. 459.

L. 8—9 thus—Had the Irish invaded the western coast with any considerable armament before, the Romans would have left &c.

L. 12—15 thus—Would not have invaded it with so considerable a one now. But apprized of the new military arrangements, and stimulated with the inviting prospect of conquest, they &c.

P. 460.

L. 11 thus—Extended their arms to &c.

P. 461.

L. 15—17, thus—Tacitus Ann. lib. xii. c. 31, and Richard's Iter 14, Sarisonio 11, Glæbon 15, *Ad Antonam* 15, Alauna 15. This serves to fix the Antona of Tacitus decisively, Gloucester on one side and Alcester on the other settling *Ad Antonam* about

Evesham or Bengeworth, and on the Upper Avon. And Gale's Essay in Leland's Itin. v. VI. p. 143, 1769, serves to shew, that additional links were made to the chain, to continue it along the Nen to the marshes. By this scheme, the passage in Tacitus is now for the first time interpreted literally, and history and fact are reconciled together.

P: 462.

L. 17—18 thus—Is supposed by Mr. Macpherson, and from him by Dr. Henry in his new History of Great Britain v. I. 4to 1771, p. 425—426, to be the famous Carausius.

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CONCLUSION.

WE have now pursued the history of Manchester to that important period in the annals of the island, the consolidation of its five provinces into one empire, and the descent of the Saxons on the whole.

We have seen the large extent of the parish a wild unfrequented tract of woodland, inhabited merely by the boar, the bull, and the wolf, and traversed only by the hunters of the neighbouring country. And we have seen it selected by the monarch of Lancashire for the seat of a fort in the woods, and a fort actually settled in the middle of it. Such was the very early origin of the population of the parish, and the first commencement of a town within it. And the rude outlines of the one, and the faint principle of the other, began about fifty years before the Christian æra, and within the compass of the Castle-field.

The forest assumes a new life and colouring from it. And the silence and solitude, that have regularly prevailed before, are now interrupted by the resort of soldiers to the fortress, the excursions of hunters from the field, and the voices of the garrison on the banks of the Medlock.

But that warlike tribe of Latium, which, from a small assemblage of outlaws on the heights of the Tiber, had amazingly become the lords of Italy, the masters of Gaul, and the conquerors of half the globe, land upon the island, reduce the little kingdoms of the Britons, and advance into Lancashire. They penetrate

trate into our woods. They introduce the tumults of war into our parish. And they take the original Manchester.

An additional spirit then actuates the woodland. A Roman station is constructed on the Castle-field. Another is established about a mile to the north of it. And the site of the present town is now cleared in part of its trees, and first receives a colony of inhabitants upon it; one indeed that is but transitory in its nature, and exists only during the continuance of summer. The most north-westerly part of the forest is appropriated to the feeding of the Roman cattle; and four little fortresses are placed for their protection within it. And the whole woodland is intersected with large roads on every side, all ranging in right lines through the thickets, and converging to a point at the Castle-field.

One thing more compleats the great change in the aspect of this region. A regular town is now for the first time laid out in the parish. And a neighbouring baron and his clan are settled within it. This is placed in the center of the forest, and founded in the memorable autumn of 79. And the adjoining station in the Castle-field becomes the citadel of the new Manchester.

Under the auspices of the Roman genius in Britain, that principle of population, which had faintly quickened before at the heart of the woodland, now becomes active, and vigorous, and diffuses its influence on every side. The beasts are dislodged to a greater distance from the town. The receding forest curves in an amphitheater of woods around it. And all the mechanical arts are successfully transplanted into the wild. Civility, literature, and politeness follow. And Christianity closes the rear.

Immediately a new scene of sorrow arises. A fresh invasion is meditated from the continent. A tribe of idolatrous savages is hastening from the shores of Germany. Ruin marks their advance. Ignorance, incivility, and barbarism attend upon them. And the fall of Manchester approaches.

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The histories of a town, of a nation, and of man, are nothing but records of human calamities and registers of human woes. These, however, are generally provoked by vices, and are naturally productive of virtues. They re-invigorate by the task of trials that tone of the mind, which was previously weakened by inactivity. And, in forcible appeals to the thoughtfulness of the soul, they assert those powers of religion, which were sinking before in the sensualities of peace. The convulsions of nature and the enormities of man, the war of elements, and the subversion of empires, are all admirably directed by the controuling influence of the Deity, to the great purposes of supporting the moral interests of the world, and impressing the heart with the truths of religion.

A P P E N D I X.

N^o I.

I HAVE long thought, that, a regular course of remarks upon the incidents and observations, which occur in the principal of our English historians, would be of considerable service to historical knowledge. Our best national accounts, in the period especially before the Conquest, call loudly, I think, for the corrective hand of criticism. Prejudice and partiality, ignorance and inattention, dulness and refinement, have all cooperated to throw their several false colours over the face of our annals, and disguise their real and genuine features. And some bolder spirit has been long wanted among us, that would dare to read, examine, and think for himself; mount up to the fountain-heads of our history, there mark the principles that secretly colour the waters at the source, and then observe the tints that incorporate with them afterwards. Something of this nature is attempted in the present work. But it wants perhaps one addition. It should not only endeavour to open the great and unveiled truths of our history, but also point out the errors, with which the earlier part of it seems to be clouded over. The brightness of truth, like that of the sun, is most fully displayed, not merely by the radiance of its own light, but by a contrast with its opposite darkness. And the many faults that have been committed by all our recent historians, I think, and are continually gleamed by each succeeding writer from the earlier, will be the sooner avoided by being held up to the light,

light, and our island annals more readily purged of their original falsities.

These reasons have induced me to begin here, and to think of continuing regularly in the appendix, a series of remarks, short and decisive, on our two best historians Mr. Carte and Mr. Hume, as the proper representatives of the rest. I shall remark upon them, however, only so far as their accounts run parallel in time with my own. And I shall do it with all the respect that is due to both. From this plan I foresee not a little advantage to myself; as I doubt not but I shall have frequent occasion, in animadverting upon them, to correct myself. And each volume of the History of Manchester, before it appears in publick, will be improved by the light reflected back from the appendix. The observations will, many of them perhaps, appear unimportant and trifling in the detail. But all will be found serviceable, I think, as parts of a whole. And, before I finally close the subject, a regular scheme of historical criticism may be given, perhaps, for all the period of our national history before the Conquest.

At this time, I shall notice only such parts of Mr. Hume's and Mr. Carte's histories, as relate to the preceding accounts. And these are not very many. The present work has struck out a new path of history, that seldom comes near to theirs.

C A R T E

Vol. I.

P. 4—7, Mr. Carte gives us his etymologies for the names Albion and Britain; deriving the former in the usual strain of our historians from the white cliffs of Dover, and the latter from the Britanni on the continent. But these etymons are entirely overthrown, I think, in ch. i. s. 1. before, and, more particularly, in the Genuine History of the Britons asserted against Mr. Macpherson, p. 91—93 and 95—103.

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P. 7—15,

P. 7—15, Mr. Carte is employed in following the course of Mons. Pezron, and tracing those Celts who planted Gaul and peopled Britain, in their progress westward from the seat of their original patriarch. But this is a subject so compleatly enveloped in darkness, that we cannot advance a step upon certain ground. We are every moment in danger of stumbling upon stones or sinking into pitfalls. And not a rush-light appears at a distance, to direct us in the dubious and dangerous progress. I say not this, however, from the fashionable petulance of briskness and vanity, which often condemns the researches that it is too ignorant or too indolent to pursue itself, and hastily reprobates every attempt as impracticable which is attended with difficulty. And I speak it only from the plain nature of the case. The Sacred History frequently lends us information with regard to the father of a people, and the first place of his settlement. But it goes no farther. The Great Being, who amazingly condescended to become historian to man, became so only to promote the awful purposes of religion in the world. After the Dispersion, therefore, he confines himself entirely to the family of Abraham, and gives us only incidental notices concerning the nations that bordered immediately upon it. And profane history cannot supply its place; as it does not give us its light, till ages after these western regions of Europe were all inhabited.

That the isles of the Gentiles were first peopled by the descendants of Japhet, is a declaration of Infallibility; and means, I suppose, only the islands and shores on the northern side of the Mediterranean. But that the family of Tiras or Tirax, his youngest son, first planted Europe, and spread themselves to the western coast of the Atlantick, as is asserted by Mr. Carte in p. 8—11; and were afterwards subdued by colonies from the descendants of Gomer the eldest, as is affirmed in p. 11—12; is said without any authority of reason or of fact. Scripture only can carry us so far up the current of time. And it is quite silent on the subject. The only pretended proof of the former is the ungrounded affirmation, that the sons of Tirax had

had the names of Thraces, Briges, and Phryges; and the wild supposition, that these are the same with Frixi, Frigones, Frisones, Frisii, Barisii, Brigantes, Brisones, Britones, and Britanni, (p. 9); when almost all these appellations actually appear only as the names of the Gomerians or Celtæ many centuries afterwards. And the only argument in favour of that Gomerian history, which is related in p. 12—15, is this, That the fabulous stories of the ancients concerning their gods Saturn, Jupiter, Mercury, and Pluto, seem to have related to the ancient princes on the northern coast of the Mediterranean. But this is no evidence, that these princes were kings of the Gomerians. It particularly does not shew, whether they were Gomerian or Thracian monarchs. And it much less proves, that the Thracians were the first planters of Europe, and afterwards subdued by the Gomerians.

There are, I believe, no traces in any part of Celtick Europe, of an original settlement there by the sons of Tirax, or of a subsequent reduction of these by the children of Gomer. And this part of Mr. Carte's or Monf. Pézron's system has not even the usual ground-work of such precarious speculations, a semblance of historical probability. If indeed they had thought judiciously over their scheme, and endeavoured to give their airy hypothesis a more substantial form; they would have cut off the whole of the Thracian plantation of western Europe, and made the Gomerian invasion the primary establishment of it. And undertaken upon better principles, and executed in a more argumentative manner, this would pretty certainly have given us the true origin of our Celtick ancestors.

N. B. I pass over the etymologies, with which Mr. Carte has presented us, to confirm his positions. The former indeed have, many of them, been given very often before. But they are as ridiculous as the latter are visionary. And it would be too degrading for criticism, to refute seriously the derivation of the national names of Parthi and Sacæ from the Welsh Parthy and the English To Part and Sack (p. 11); and the deduction of Uranus,

the Greek *οὐρανός* or heaven, from the Armorick *Ur-ên* a man of the heavens (p. 12); of Mercury from *Merc* a Latin-British word, and *Ur*, signifying a man of merchandise (p. 14); of Cronos, the Greek *χρόνος* or time, from *Corona*, *Kroon*, or *Crowr*, and of Pluto from the Greek *πλοῦτος* or riches (p. 13). the fantastical buttresses of a whimsical building.

P. 16. " This [Thracian or Phrygian] descent of theirs [the Britons] seems to be sufficiently pointed out, and the memory of it to be preserved, in the name of the Brigantes, who were known to be, what Cæsar calls, the Aborigines, the first inhabitants of this island. This was certainly the old tradition of the natives; not only in his time, agreeably to what he tells of their first coming over from Gaul; but also in Bede's, who, living in the heart of the country of the Brigantes, speaks of it, as their received opinion, that Great Britain was first peopled ex Armoricano tractu, not from the particular province of Bretagne, but from the whole tract of the sea-coast."

In this specimen of inaccurate and vague reasoning are many mistakes.—Cæsar says not, either that the Brigantes were the Aborigines of Britain, or that the latter came over from Gaul. His words are these: *Britannia pars interior ab iis incolitur quos natos in insula ipsa memoria proditum dicunt; maritima pars ab iis qui ex Belgis transierant.* And I have shewn before, ch. i. §. 1, and in the History of the Britons asserted p. 71—74, that the name of Brigantes was not peculiar to the aboriginal Britons, but common to them and the Belgæ. The Belgick Trinovantes are particularly mentioned as Brigantes by the famous Galgacus. And the whole body of the British Belgæ are denominated *Allobroges*, by Richard.—But how can any intimation in Cæsar, if there had been any, that the Aborigines came over from Gaul, or any in Bede, of their derivation ex Armoricano tractu, prove the Phrygian or Thracian descent of the first colonists, and in opposition too to the Gomerian of the second?—Cæsar opposes the

the Aborigines to the Belgæ; but Mr. Carte contrasts them with the Gomerians or Celtæ. And Bedé, in his traditionary derivation of the Britons ex Armorico tractu, extends it to all of them; while Mr. Carte confines and appropriates it to the Aborigines.—Did not the Gomerians also, even according to Mr. Carte's own representations, come equally with his fancied Thracians from Gaul, and (as he himself extends the words to all the sea-coast of France) ex Armorico tractu? And are not all the Belgæ in Britain, as I have mentioned above, denominated Broges and Brigantes?

P. 17. “Mr. Camden seems entirely of opinion, that the first inhabitants of this island came from the Gomerians, the proper and peculiar name of the Britons, being called (as the Welsh, their genuine remains, call themselves at this day) Kumero, Curnero, Cymro, and Cumeri, like as a British or Welsh woman, Kumeræ, and the tongue itself Kumeræg: This of itself is a strong presumption, and he enforces it with several reasons, to which I readily subscribe.”

The inconsistency of this extract, and indeed of the whole paragraph from which I have taken it, with all the preceding account, is very apparent. The first colonists of the island are derived, before, from the sons of Tirax, and now from the descendants of Gomer. Their Thracian or Phrygian descent is endeavoured to be proved, before, from the name of Brigantes, the testimony of Cæsar, and the tradition of Bedé. Now, all these arguments are set aside by Mr. Carte himself, and the author readily subscribes to an opinion the very reverse of his own. He here assigns reasons and expresses a belief, entirely subversive of all the former parts of his system. And, what is as remarkable, this is no accidental and occasional deviation from his settled opinion: and he persists ever afterwards in this new belief.

P. 17—21. In these pages the author endeavours to fix the first population of this island. And at the close he says thus—
 “It seems impossible to conceive, but that Great Britain must
 “at the latest be planted in one of those reigns [Pluto’s or
 “Mercury’s]—, which took up together the space of a century.
 “It was probably in the former, that the first Gomerian or
 “Celtic colonies were settled in this island; which must con-
 “sequently have been planted 2000 years before the Christian
 “era.”

In the former edition, and in answer to this very argument, I had observed, That the series of Mr. Carte’s own history pretty plainly opposes this notion of his; as it settles in p. 22. the first migrations of the Gauls of which we can ascertain the period, migrations too occasioned by populousness, not till nearly 1500 years after the era assigned here for the first inhabitation of Britain. And I had equally observed, That the history of population in England and Ireland seems strongly to prove the country not to have been inhabited till about 1000 years before Christ. The latter argument I have since enlarged in the Hist. of the Britons asserted. And from the progress of population in the island and on the continent, the concurrence of one with the other, the coincidence of both with the notices of history, and the convergence of all to one common point of time, I have there shewn with as much certainty, I think, as the nature of the subject will admit, That Britain was not peopled till ten ages after the period set down by Mr. Carte for the fact. See p. 29—32 of the Hist. of the Britons.

P. 21—23. “About 150 years before Christ, the Belgæ—
 “crossed the Rhine, and took possession of the maritime pro-
 “vinces of Gaul,—transported over forces to Britain, and—
 “reduced at last all the southern parts of this island from Kent
 “to the Land’s End.”

This invasion of Gaul by the Belgæ must have happened much earlier, as they even invaded Britain 200 years before it. See ch. xii. f. 4. and Hist. of the Britons p. 64.

P. 23—24. The progress of the Cimbri here from the Palus Maotis to the northern parts of Germany, and afterwards into the midland regions of it, is entirely false, I apprehend, and is certainly un-authenticated by Mr. Carte. The Cimbri of Jutland, like the Stambri on the Rhine, were assuredly derived; as they are in ch. xii. f. 4. above, and in The Hist. of the Britons p. 51—53, from the great stock of the Cimbri in Gaul.

P. 24. “Hither—the old inhabitants of Belgium came—; and
“in all probability found the Britains willing to receive their
“new guests, and to give them vast quantities of land, which
“they did not cultivate.—Devonshire and Cornwall were all
“in a manner a wild forest at the coming of the Belgæ, as they
“continued to be in a great degree till within one hundred and
“fifty years after the Conquest. Somersetshire was the same
“for the most part.—Dorsetshire too was full of the like forests.
“And it is well known, how widely extended that of Ander-
“rida was, and what a large tract of country it took up in
“Kent and Suffex. These seem accordingly to have been the
“parts, where the Belgic Britanni first settled.”

All this is plainly erroneous. There is a mistake equally in the facts alledged, and in their application to the present subject.—The quiet settlement of the Belgæ in Britain is asserted in direct opposition to Cæsar. *Britanniæ—maritima pars* (he says) *ab iis [incolitur] qui, præda ac belli inferendi causâ, ex Belgis transferant; qui omnes,—bello victi, ibi remanserunt.* See also before ch. xij. f. 4.—And, though these counties had been in a manner a wild forest at the coming of the Belgæ, yet this would be no proof of their being uninhabited by the Britons before. The whole kingdom of the Coritani was nothing but one great forest, to the coming of the Romans (see ch. v. f. 3. before) — Kent, Suffex, Devonshire, Cornwall, Dorsetshire, and Somersetshire were also inhabited by no less than seven tribes, and

three of them actually British, before and after the Belgæ came. And these three were the Carnabii, the Cambri, and the Hadui; all equally subdued by the Proper Belgæ of Hampshire, and the Damnoniæ of Devonshire.—The six counties were so far from continuing in a great degree a forest to the Conquest, that they had each many British towns in them even before the Romans came, and many Roman cities afterward. And, if they had remained in a great degree a forest for so many ages after the Belgick settlements, then these must have made very little alteration in the state and aspect of the country; and the lands must have been almost as little occupied by the Belgæ now, as by the Britons before.—Nor could the Belgæ have settled, as they are here supposed by Mr. Carte, in these counties at first. Passing assuredly across the narrowest part of the sea, and confining themselves, as Cæsar informs us, to the southern shore; they must gradually have extended their dominions from Kent to the Land's End. And their first possessions would be Kent, Sussex, and Hampshire; and Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, and Cornwall, their last.—So pregnant with errors is this passage!

P. 25. “ These colonies from Belgium had been used to live
 “ —, not—, like the Brigantes [or native Britons], in woods,
 “ —but—in towns and villages; and—towns and cities now
 “ began to be founded.”

For a refutation of this wild opinion, which throws a shade over all the author's account here, we need only appeal to one authority, Cæsar's, and to his account of the only two British towns which he stormed. One was in the country of the Belgick Cantii, and the other in the dominions of Cassivelaunus, a monarch of the aboriginal Britons. And they appear both the same. The former was no more a modern town or village, than the latter; but merely, like it, a fortress in the woods. And Cæsar expressly assures us, that there was no other

other sort of towns in the island. *Oppidum Britanni vocant, quum silvas impeditas vallo atque fossâ munierunt* (p. 92).

—“ Such were the numbers [of Belgæ] which came over thither [into Kent], that, instead of mixing with the Britains, as the others seem to have done, they formed a distinct people known by the name of *Nouantæ* or New Inhabitants, or *Nou Cantæ* or New Kentishmen, from whom Ptolemy calls the Foreland of Kent *Promontorium Noucantium*.”

The *Nouantæ* were not the inhabitants of Kent, but are placed in Essex by Ptolemy, and in Essex and Middlesex by Richard and the truth.—And, that they are sometimes denominated *Noucantæ*, is a strange mistake. They are never called so.—And, that the Foreland of Kent is called *Promontorium Noucantium* by Ptolemy, is as strange a one. It bears only the names of Cantion and A-Cantion in him and Strabo (p. 294 and 304); signifying Promontory and The Promontory.

P. 26. “ As for the true Belgæ, they had no manner of taste for trade; their disposition was entirely warlike. Their time too was taken up in Gaule &c.”

Such is the character here given of the Belgæ that migrated into Britain. And yet, the very page before, we have one given of them that is just the reverse of this. In p. 25 it is said of the Belgæ of Britain, that “ *commerce* and husbandry had been their chief employments in Gaule.” How unguarded and contradictory!

—“ Divitiacus assembling a large body of forces, composed of his own subjects, the Bibroci in the Rhemois, the Atrebatæ, and other Belgic nations,—passed the sea into Britain; and reduced a great part of it into his obedience. The chief scene of his conquests lay in the counties of Berks and Oxford, where
“ he

“ he planted the Bibroci and Attrebates ; and in those of Hants, Wilts, and the bordering parts of Somerset and Sussex, where he settled the other adventurers, who went by the general name of Belgæ ; expelling the Regni and other clans of the old inhabitants from their seats in those countries.”

Here is a variety of mistakes, all resulting principally from Mr. Carte's inattentiveness to that line of distinction, which facts point out and I have traced above, betwixt the Belgick and Aboriginal tribes of the island.—The Bibroces and Attrebates I have shewn in ch. v. f. 3. to have been both Aboriginal nations, and not Belgick. They could not therefore be transported into Britain at this period. And they could not have been settled in their dominions by Divitiacus.—Nor did these dominions extend into Oxfordshire. They were all confined to the south of the Thames.—And the chief scene of Divitiacus's conquests did not lie in Oxfordshire and Berkshire. These counties were so far from being the principal theatre of his actions, that they were actually none at all. And in ch. xii. f. 2. I have shewn, in what part of the island his conquests probably lay.—They were not in Somersetshire and Sussex. They could not be, even according to Mr. Carte's own representation before. In p. 24 he has settled the first colonies of the Belgæ in Sussex and Somersetshire. And those countries were therefore possessed by the Belgæ before Divitiacus came over, and could not be conquered by them now.—In p. 24 Mr. Carte has also fixed the earliest colonies in Kent, Sussex, &c., as lying all waste, and being unpossessed by the Britons. But here it appears, that some part of Sussex, particularly, did not lie waste, and was actually possessed by a whole nation of the Britons, the Regni.—And these Regni inhabited not merely those parts of Sussex that border upon Hampshire. They extended over the whole of it (see ch. iii. f. 2.).—And the conquests of Divitiacus could have as little to do with Hampshire, as with Sussex. This, as I have shewed before, must naturally have been a part of the first possessions of the Belgæ, as they spread successively from Kent into Cornwall. And therefore it could not be conquered now.—Nor were

were the Regni expelled from their possessions at this period. They continued in them, and were masters of all Suffex, even to the period of the Roman settlement among us (see ch. iii. f. 2).—Nor were the Regni likely to be expelled by the Belgæ. They were Belgæ themselves. *Maritima pars* (says Cæsar) ab iis [incolitur] qui ex Belgis transierant. And see ch. xii. f. 2.

P. 26—27. “It is very probable, that—he [Divitiacus] subdued a good part of the Iceni.”

This is a supposition not at all probable in itself. And it is certainly not true. In ch. v. f. 3. I have shewn, that it is not; and that the Cassi, the great enemies of the Belgæ, and the subduers of the Belgick Trinovantes, lay betwixt them and the Iceni.

P. 27. “That great prince’s ambition [Divitiacus’s] had involved them [the Belgæ] in wars with the natives; in which the Atrebatæ and Trinobantes, lying upon the borders, suffered most; and—the Iceni and Cattivellauni found it no difficult matter to recover their liberty. Had it not been for that reigning passion in Divitiacus,—the Belgæ might probably have continued much longer in amity with the Britons—.”

The Belgæ, as I have already shewn in these remarks, had been previously engaged in wars with the natives. And they had been so from the first moment of their descent on the country. *Prædæ ac belli inferendi causâ ex Belgis transierant, et bello illatō ibi remanserunt* (Cæsar p. 92).—In these wars the Atrebatæ and Trinobantes could not suffer more than any other Belgæ. The Atrebatæ were not of the Belgæ. They were Aboriginal Britons.—The Cattivellauni are now first mentioned by Mr. Caræ. And they are here represented as throwing off the yoke of the Belgæ, when we have yet had no account of their reduction by them.—But the reduction of either them or the Iceni, and the posteriour recovery of both from the yoke, are incidents

incidents forged only in the fancy of the historian, contrary to the testimony of authentick history, and indubitably untrue.

N. B. From p. 27 to 71 is a history of Druidism, and, in general, a good one; but marked in many places with those strokes of the conjectural and fanciful, which it is perhaps difficult to avoid in a work of this nature. And from p. 71 to 77 is an account of the Gauls,—I have little to do with either. And I shall note only two or three passages, that contradict my former accounts.

P. 43. “Gildas informs us, that the Britons in his time had very ill-favoured statues, and paid divine honours to mountains, hills, and rivers.”

This is very inaccurately stated. Gildas says only, that the Britons worshipped these objects, and had ill-favoured statues, before they were converted to Christianity; and that some of the latter remained to his own time. He will not enumerate (he says ch. 2) *patriæ portenta ipsa diabolica, pæne numero vincientia Egyptiaca, quorum nonnulla lineamentis adhuc deformibus intra vel extra desertæ mœnia, solito more rigentia, torvis vultibus intuemur; neque—montes ipsos—vel fluvios,—quibus divinus honor a cæco tunc populo cumulabatur.* Here, we see, he speaks not of any idolatrous worship remaining to his own time. He only says, that some monuments of it continued till then. And these were not, as Mr. Carte has made them, the images formed and worshipped by the primitive Britons; but those of the Roman only. They were seen, he observes, *intra vel extra desertæ mœnia*, at the sites of the Roman-British cities that had been recently destroyed by the Saxons. And several of them have come down to the present times.

P. 73. "Some flesh-meat, — but chiefly milk, — and bread, were their ordinary food; though the Gauls regaled themselves.—with cheese, which the Britons had not learned to make."

Mr. Carte has before represented the high degree of civility to which the Britons had arrived, by giving them regular towns. But he here makes a large deduction from that account, and denies them even the art of making cheese. The panegyric was exaggerated. And the deduction is unjust. They had no regular towns. And they actually made cheeses. Some of the Britons, says Strabo, know not how to make cheese, *οὐκ οἴσιν ποροποιεῖν δια τὴν ἀπειρίαν*, p. 305. Many of them therefore did; and all assuredly that understood agriculture, the Belgæ, and even some of the neighbouring Britons.—And, as to bread, it is highly probable that it was not the ordinary food of one half of the Britons. Where agriculture was practised, as among the Belgæ and some of the adjoining Aborigines, there bread undoubtedly would be used. But where the former was unknown, as among all the other Britons, there the latter could not ordinarily be had. And it was most probably not had at all. Barley indeed seems to have been brought into the northern kingdoms from the south, for the service of the breweries. But it would naturally be appropriated to them. The want of bread might be supplied by the ministry of roots. But there could be no substitute for a cordial, exhilarating, and animating liquor. And the latter would, in every ruder age and colder climate, be infinitely preferred to the former. That therefore would be kept up by barley expensively fetched from the southern regions of the island, while this would be neglected or overlooked.

P. 74. "In Cæsar's time neither they [the Gauls], nor the Belgæ of the south parts of Britain, painted their bodies."

This

This assertion concerning the Belgæ is directly contrary to Cæsar's own account of the Britons. *Longè sunt humanissimi qui Cantium incolunt* (says he), *quæ regio est maritima omnis, neque multum a Gallicâ differunt consuetudine: interiores plerique frumenta non serunt: omnes verò se Britanni vitro insciunt.* Here the Belgæ of the sea-coast are expressly declared to have been equally painted, with the interior or Aboriginal Britons.

—“ The Gauls had a like advantage, in the largeness of their houses, over the Britains, whose cabins were very mean, made up of reeds and wood, or of fods and hurdles.”

To this false account there needs no other reply, than to observe, that Cæsar expressly contradicts it. The houses of the Britons, he remarks, were almost exactly the same with those of the Gauls: *Ædificia ferè Gallicis consimilia.* The latter therefore could have little or no advantage over the former, either in the size or the nature of their houses.

P. 75. “ The Celtæ despised death so much, as often to fight naked; the Gauls doing that out of a bravado, which the Britons were forced to submit to out of necessity.”

This is in the general strain of our historians. But I have shewn before, ch. vii. § 5, in opposition to them all, that the Britons were as regularly clothed as the Gauls; that they appeared naked only in the hour of battle; that some even of the Gauls retained the custom to the days of Diodorus; and that, still more wonderful, the Highlanders even partially preserved it to the reign of king William, throwing off their plaids and short coats, and fighting in their shirts, as late as the battle of Killcranky.

—“ The Britains—had the broad sword without a point, as well as the shorter dagger, and such javelins and arrows as they used in their hunting; but the common people were ill provided in this respect, their darts being generally sticks
“ of

“ of wood, burnt and sharpened at both ends, and a long staff edged towards the end with flint or headed with a piece of copper, instead of halberts; these were their offensive weapons. A light round target—was all they used for their defence; having neither coats of mail nor helmets, as Tacitus assures us.”

In the lines immediately preceding this extract we are told, that the Gauls had coats of mail, helmets, broad long swords without points, and short ones; darts, javelins, and battle-axes. And if this representation of the Gallic armories be, as it is, just and true, the British must have been better provided than they are here described to be. The weapons of all the Celtæ would naturally be the same, with only those small and incidental variations which commerce might have introduced among them. And, that the British and Gallick arms were exactly the same, we are expressly assured by Mela; who says, that the Britons were Gallicè armati (see ch. i. s. 2. before).—Nor does Tacitus’s account contradict this, even as applied by Mr. Carte. He says, that the bulk of the Caledonians had no coats of mail or helmets. And this is very consistent with the other. The principal warriors only wore them, as I have shewn in ch. i. s. 2. And those only must have worn them in Gaul, as only such were clad in them even to these later times.—The British halbert, or Celt, in Mr. Carte I have shewn above, ch. i. s. 2, to have been the same instrument that he here assigns to the Gauls, a battle-axe. And the agreement of the British and Gallick weapons is an additional evidence in favour of the opinion.—That the darts of the Britons were generally sticks of wood burnt and sharpened at both ends, is all an assertion without proof. And it is clearly unjust. The Caledonian spears (says Dio) had a brazen apple at the end (see ch. i. s. 2). And, if they had this at one end, they were certainly pointed with metal at the other.—Nor was the British target always round. Generally it was so. But we have one upon a coin of Cunobeline, which is in the form of a lozenge; as I have remarked in ch. ix. s. 2.

P. 76. "Before that time [the Roman conquest], the greatest part of Britain lay uncultivated—; the old Britons not understanding husbandry.— The Belgic colonies—first began to— build houses substantial enough to last for a considerable time, as well as contiguous to each other, and to live together in towns and villages. The Britains still went on in their old way."

All the old Britons, without exception, are here declared not to understand husbandry. But the declaration is not true. Some of them did. *Plerique interiores frumenta non serunt*, says Cæsar.—The houses also of the Britons and Belgæ were exactly the same. They were built in the same manner with the Gallick. And they were, consequently, of one and the same nature, alike in materials and form.—And that the Belgæ first began to build houses contiguous to each other, and live together in towns and villages, has been already refuted. They had just such towns as the Britons, at the period of the Roman conquest.

"The Britains still went on in their old way—. Their cattle—they drove from place to place, according to the season of the year and the nature of the soil.— Thus Westmoreland and Somersetshire, being moist and morassy countries, served the Brigantes and Dumnoni for the summer pastures, as Cumberland, Cornwall,—having a dryer soil, did for their winter."

That the nations of the Britons, in general, did drive their cattle from one county to another in summer and winter, is impossible to be fully true. Few of them possessed little more than a county or two. And many of them had only a single one.—Nor could the Brigantes have used Westmoreland and Cumberland for their summer and winter pastures. Westmoreland is far from being a moist and morassy country, or Cumberland from being remarkably dry. The hills of the former must have been as good a winter pasture, as any lands in the latter. And the Brigantes could have nothing to do with either, till their reduction of them; which was only about the beginning of the Christian æra. Nor did they then find them desolate.

Cumberland

Cumberland was even then inhabited by a nation, that had extended itself over half Westmoreland.—And all the change of pastures, that was made by the Britons, was the same undoubtedly as is made to this day by the Highlanders; driving the cattle to the valleys in the summer, and re-driving them to the hills in winter.—Somersetshire therefore, as such, could not be the winter or summer pastures of any tribe of the Britons. And it did not belong to the Dumnonii. It was inhabited by the whole nation of the Hædri, and a part of the Cimbri. And only a very small portion of it, to the south-east, was possessed by the Dumnonii.—A great part of Cornwall was equally inhabited by the whole tribe of the Carnabii, and the rest by the Cimbri and Dumnonii.—And it is remarkable that Mr. Carte, in speaking of the mode of living among the *old Britons*, instances in a couple of tribes, the Dumnonii and Brigantes; when one of them, the former, is according to truth, and even his own accounts both before (p. 23 and 24) and after (p. 103), a tribe of the *Belgæ*.

— The old Britons “ had no cities or towns, except such “ transitory ones; as are described by Strabo, who says that “ woods served them instead of cities, “ for cutting down a “ number of trees, they inclose a circle, and put up huts in it “ for themselves and stalls for their cattle to serve them for a “ little time.” These cabins were only for a present shelter, “ whilst their cattle fed in a certain place.”

That the old Britons had cities, and such as the Belgæ had, has been convincingly shewn before. They had, neither of them, any but towns in the woods. And they both had them equally.—The transitory cities founded on Strabo’s authority are only the fancies of his mis-informed critics.” And his words are these. Περὶ φραζάντες δένδρεσι καὶ αἰετλημένῳ εὐρυχωρᾷ κυκλῶν, καὶ αὐτοὶ ἐν αὐτῇ καλυβόσθησθαι, καὶ τὰ βοσκημαία καλῶσθαι αὐτοὺς, ἢ πρὸς πολὺν χρόνον.” And here is no account of the Britons shifting their habitations, and much less of their changing their cities. The whole is a description of a British town. And Strabo says, that it was composed of cabins for the garrison and hovels for

the cattle, *καὶ πρὸς πολὺν χρόνον*, 'built of no durable materials; being not constructed, like those of Italy, with stone or bricks, but with timber and plaister. I have shewn already from Cæsar, that they were of the same materials generally with the Gallick houses. And they were mean habitations, says Diodorus expressly, because they were composed principally of timber and reeds (p. 346).—Strabo's words also, which are here confined by Mr. Carte to the old Britons, are extended in the original to all of them, the Belgæ as well as the Aborigines. And, as they are descriptive of a British town, they shew the old Britons and the Belgæ to have equally had towns among them, and equally the same sort of towns; and so defeat the very design for which Mr. Carte has produced them.

P. 77. "Colonies, from a corruption of which word that of 'clan is derived."

How is this possible! How could the appellation of clan, which is retained to this day in the un-romanized regions of Caledonia and Ireland only, be derived to them from the Romans! The word indeed is purely British. And it has no relation to colony, either in its origin or import. It signifies only a progeny or family.

P. 80, Mr. Carte closes his account of the Britons with these remarks: "The old Britons were 'without military skill or experience, the necessary consequence of a long course of peace, 'interrupted nowhere except on the borders of the Belgic colonies; in a country generally—open, without any inclosure, 'without a single town or fortification from one end of the 'kingdom to the other."

That the old Britons had no military skill or experience, is said, because it is supposed that they had no wars, except with the Belgick colonies. And, as this is not true, the other must be false. Diodorus, indeed, says something like it; taking notice, that the kings of Britain were generally at peace one with another (p. 347). But then he extends the observation equally to

to the old Britons and the Belge. And history and fact concur to disprove both his and Mr. Carte's assertion. *Causas ac bella contrahunt*, says Mela of the Britons in general, *ac se frequenter invicem infestant, maxime imperitandi cupidine, studioque ea prolatandi quæ possident.* (lib. iii. c. 6). And I have, accordingly, shewn the old Britons of Yorkshire and Durham to have reduced the *Sisuntii* and *Velacri*, the *Selgovæ*, and *Carnabii*; the *Icenii* to have subdued the *Coritani*; and the *Cassii* the *Dobuni*, &c.—Nor was Britain generally open and without inclosures. It could not be, when the face of the country was so greatly intersected with woods, as Strabo assures us that it was (p. 305). And, that there was not a single town or fortification among the old Britons, is a continuation of the error refuted above, and the unjustest representation that ever was given. Mr. Carte indeed appears to have *nodded* over this part of his history. For does not he himself give us an account in p. 94, of *Cassivelaun's* town being fortified by the old Britons “very strongly both by art and nature,” and actually stormed by the Romans? Does he not in p. 101 speak of *Camulodunum*, the capital of *Cunobeline*, a monarch of the old Britons? And do we not meet with an infinite variety of towns, both in Britain and in Ireland, among the geographers and historians of Rome?

P. 94. “*Cassivelaun* sent instructions to *Cingetorix* and *Taximagulus*, two Kentish potentates, *Carvilius*, chief of the *Carvili* in Wilts, and *Segonax*, a prince of the *Segontiaci* in Hampshire, to assemble all their forces and surprise the naval camp of the Romans.”

The making *Carvilius* chief of the *Carvili*, a tribe existing only in imagination, and *Segonax* prince of the *Segontiaci*, a nation much too remote to be concerned in an attack upon *Cæsar's* naval camp, is borrowed from the very fanciful, and generally mistaken, Mr. Baxter. And Dr. Stukeley, in his *Stonehenge*, to the affront of his better judgment, has adopted the

same wild notion. *Cæsar* expressly declares them all to have been of Kent; *Cantium*—*quibus regionibus quatuor reges præerant* (p. 92).

P. 103. "In all those territories of the *Damnonii* [Cornwall, Devon, and the adjoining parts of Somersetshire] there is not the least vestige of any Roman station or encampment [and therefore, it is argued, that no stations were ever settled there]."

There were *Iscæ Damnoniorum*, *Moridunum*, *Cenis*, *Voluba*, *Durius*, *Tamara*, &c. These *Ptolemy* and the *Itineraries* mention. And there were various others without question, of which they give no account. One or two of these last are actually described in *Dr. Borlase's Cornwall*.

N. B. In p. 91, 98, 100, 104, 114, 119, &c. &c., are great mistakes concerning the position of the British tribes. And I do not wonder at it. The Roman-British geography of the island has never yet been satisfactorily settled, unless it is perhaps in the present work.—But I wonder at one thing. That is the inconsistency in the accounts of the tribes. The *Dumnonii* I have remarked before to be represented as *Belgæ* in p. 23, and in p. 76 as old Britons. The *Trinobantes*, who are always very justly noted before as *Belgæ*, are all at once in p. 114—117 transformed into old Britons. The *Regni* in p. 16 are placed in the adjoining parts of *Suffex* and *Hampshire*, and made old Britons: but a part of them in p. 96 is fixed in *Surry*, and converted into *Belgæ*; and all of them make their appearance as *Belgæ* in p. 100, and again in p. 107. And the *Cassii* or *Cattivellauni* are *Aborigines* in p. 17, *Belgæ* in p. 90 and 94, and *Aborigines* again in p. 100.

P. 129. "The inhabitants of the Lowlands of Scotland were, before the Romans came hither, either dependants or vassals of
" of

“ of the Brigantes properly so called, or at least confederates
 “ with them and of their race; having the same divinity for
 “ their particular patrons, as appears from the inscription on an
 “ altar dug up in Scotland, and inscribed to the Goddess Bri-
 “ gantia.”

• I have touched upon this subject in ch. iv. § 2, and have there
 shewn, that the statue (not the altar), which was dug up in
 • Scotland, was found in Anandale, and is answered by a corre-
 spondent stone discovered in Cheshire. And I have observed
 from both, that the Brigantes in Yorkshire and Durham appear,
 not have conquered or confederated with all the nations of Va-
 lentia, but on their subjection of Lancashire, Westmoreland,
 and Cumberland, to have crossed the Solway and Mersey, and
 reduced the Carnabii of Cheshire and the Selgovæ of Anan-
 dale. This the inscriptions prove. And they prove nothing
 more. Because the Selgovæ of Anandale appear to have been
 conquered by the Brigantes, it will not follow that the Damni, the
 Ottadini, the Novantes, and the Gadeni had been equally
 conquered. And we might as well argue, that all Flavia had
 been likewise reduced by the same enterprising tribe; because
 Cheshire had.

P. 130. “ Whether they [the Novantes of Valentia] were a
 “ colony of the Belgic Britains (and they should be Britains, since
 “ Al-cluid, their capital, was called Dun-Briton), or of any
 “ other Celtic nation settled there upon the old inhabitants re-
 “ moving into Ireland,—they certainly spoke a different language
 “ from that of the Irish, Caledonians, and other Britains; and
 “ the Lowland Scots are, in the Irish language, to this day,
 “ called Galldach na Halbwîn, from Gall, a stranger.”

The hint here, concerning the Belgick origin of the Novan-
 tes in Valentia, must appear very ridiculous to any one that
 knows the interior geography of Britain. There were no
 Belgick colonies within 300 miles from Valentia.—And the
 proof, that the Novantes were Britons, is almost as ridiculous
 as the hint before it. Alcluid or Dunbriton was never the capi-
 tal of the Novantes. It was not even any town of theirs. And
 their

their dominions did not reach within eighty or a hundred miles from it.—But the assertion, that they spoke a very different language from the other Britons, and the evidence produced in favour of it, is more ridiculous than either. Though the Irish do call the Lowland Scots Gall-dach na Halbuin, and though they meant to call them Strangers by that name; would this prove any particular and small part of the Lowlanders to be peculiarly strangers? And, still more, would it argue them to speak a different language from the rest of the islanders? It certainly would not do either. The Lowlanders might in general be strangers, and yet a particular part of them not be so. And they might even all be strangers, and yet not speak a different language. The Belgæ of Middlesex and Essex were equally denominated Nevantes, and were actually strangers: and yet their language was the same with the British. But the Lowlanders might be called strangers by the Irish, because they are Saxons; as the English in Ireland are said to be equally called so by the natives. And even the Highlanders call themselves to this day by the same name of Caeldoch or Galldach. Do they therefore acknowledge themselves to be strangers in their own country? Or do they speak a very different language from the South-British, Caledonian, and Irish? The real truth is this. The name Galldach na Halbuin signifies strangers, no more than the inhabitants of the moon. And all our etymologists are mistaken about it. It means only the Gauls of Albion; as the Irish call themselves the Caelich Eirinach or Gauls of Ireland, and the English in Ireland the Ghaill, and the French the Gallta and Galltach. And see also ch. xii. §. 4. and the History of the Britons asserted against Mr. Macpherson p. 120—121.

This observation concerning the original meaning of the word Gael, Gallt, and Galltach, is the more proper to be insisted upon; as not only Mr. Carte, but even Mr. Macpherson, a native Highlander, and Mr. O'Halloran, a native Irishman, have equally mistaken the meaning, and built schemes of fictitious history upon it. And the last gentleman, in his new Introduction to the History and Annals of Ireland, has even gone so far,

far, as, to draw a line of distinction betwixt two words that are one and the same, Gael and Gathel; and made them, because the Irish (he says) popularly make them at present, to stand Gathel for a Gaul or Irishman, and Gael for a stranger (p. 192). Gathel, however, I have shewn before to be pronounced like Gael in the language equally of the Highlands and of Ireland to this day, and to be equally with it the generical appellation of all the Britons (ch. xii. s. 4. and History of the Britons asserted p. 77—78 and 120—121). And this Introduction to the Irish history, though it is animated with an uncommon spirit of patriotism, and has actually vindicated Ireland from many gross and established mis-representations, is not written in a strain of cool and judicious argumentation. I am sorry to say it, because I esteem the patriot and honour the vindicator in Mr. O'Halloran. But in reasoning he is often impertinent, in etymology generally ridiculous (see p. 199, &c.), and in early history astonishingly credulous, as visionary as a winter's tale, and as fantastical as the dream of a feverish brain. And I force myself to speak thus strongly against the Introduction, in order to check (if I can) that torrent of ridiculous and imaginary history, which the Irish are now busily discharging upon us; as I have recently endeavoured to dam up that for ever, which their brethren and antagonists of the Highlands have equally let loose upon the nation. True history can only subsist upon the destruction of both. And to beat down that wretched spirit of credulity, which has been in every age the fixed and hereditary feature of all the remains of the antient Britons among us, is absolutely necessary, in order to maintain the dignity of the national history, and to vindicate the honour of the national understanding.

H U M E

Vol. I. 8vo.

P. 1.—2. Mr. Hume appears in his history to be frequently seduced from the truth by pursuing a splendour of sentiment, and led away by an affectation of singularity into wildness and extravagance. And he sometimes appears adapting his sentiments to his situation, and throwing out such observations as will best serve the present purpose. And both these principles seem to have concurred in the production of his remarkable preface. There he advances a position, convenient perhaps for himself, but certainly unjust in its nature; That the history of nations in their infancy is not worthy a recital; as if the commencement of civil life, the dawn of the arts, and the rise of literature, were not incidents as important and interesting, as the posterious account of them, their occasional eclipses or accidental illuminations. And on this false principle he proposes to run briefly over the events, which attended the Roman conquest of Britain.—He assigns also this additional reason for it, That they “belong more to Roman than British story” (p. 2). For the same reason he must as briefly run over the Saxon, the Danish, and the Norman invasions, the irruptions of the Scots into our borders, and the descents of the French upon our coasts, as belonging rather to the history of Saxony and Denmark, Neustria, Scotland, and France. And in writing the annals of France, Scotland, or Ireland, he would take very little notice of the English transactions in those countries.—Such are the trifling arguments adduced, for giving us so short an account of the Roman history of Britain. And Mr. Hume adds, in prosecution of the former principle, what (as I have observed above) the latter would equally have led him to, That he shall also “hasten through the obscure and un-interesting period of the
“ Saxon

“Saxon annals” (p. 2). By this means, that whole portion of our history, which (as I have formerly remarked) is the most important in it, is consigned over to neglect and carelessness, as unworthy a man of genius for its writer, and incapable of affording entertainment and instruction to the reader. And a strong brand is fixed upon that period of our annals, which is (as I may say) the great seed-plot of our national history, as it gives us the origin and institution of all our government, all our civility, and all our religion; and is therefore fraught with infinite variety of instruction and pleasure to the man, the Christian, and the critick.

The extravagance of sentiment in these positions, and, what as strongly marks them, the fastidious affectation of delicacy, must have been very manifest to a gentleman of Mr. Hume's strong and masculine judgment. And his severer reflections must have been disgusted with both. But it was not convenient for him, to travel properly through the period preceding the Conquest. And yet it was necessary in itself, in order to give a seeming and saleable compleatness to his history. In this dilemma, not furnished with the requisite knowledge, and yet obliged to engage in the work, he naturally resolved to skim lightly along the surface, and throw an air of propriety over his conduct by some general reasons at the beginning. These, however slight and flimsy in themselves, would engage attention from their novelty; and perhaps convert even a deficiency into a grace. And, that this was actually the reason for the preface and the practice of Mr. Hume, is plain (I think) from the innumerable mistakes which he has made, even in his method of writing history, in the British, Roman, and Saxon periods of it. Some of these I shall now point out, and nearly transcribe the whole of his general account of the Britons.

P. 2. “All antient writers agree in representing the first inhabitants of Britain as a tribe of the Gauls or Celtae, who peopled that island from the neighbouring continent. Their
X language

“ language was the same, their manners, their government,
 “ and superstition; varied only by those small differences, which
 “ time and a communication with the bordering nations must
 “ necessarily introduce.”

Mr. Carte p. 7. says thus. And Mr. Hume sets out the me.^{se} abridger of him. “ That they [the Britons] were a Celtic nation, and came hither from Gaul, is no longer doubted by any body: the perfect conformity between them and the old Gaulois in their manners, customs, habits, buildings, temper, warlike genius, superstitions of religion, and above all in their language, joined to the situation of the two countries, not allowing on this head the least room for dispute.” And Mr. Hume appears to have judiciously compacted what had been diffusively said by Mr. Carte, and to have given us his argument in a better form.—But he has varied a little from his original, and thereby fallen into mistakes. Mr. Carte says, that the Gallick derivation of the Britons is no longer doubted by any one; and Mr. Hume, that it is unanimously asserted by all the antient writers. These are very different propositions. And the former is generally true, but the latter entirely false. There are only two antient writers, I think, that speak of the Gallick descent of the Britons. One is Cæsar, who does not agree with Mr. Hume. And the other is Tacitus, who directly opposes him. Cæsar says not, whence the great body of the islanders was derived; and he speaks only of the southern Britons as Gallick Belgæ. *Britanniæ pars interior ab iis incolitur quos natos in insulâ ipsâ memoriâ proditum dicunt; maritima pars ab iis qui ex Belgis transierant* (p. 88). And Tacitus expressly affirms the origin of the Britons to be a thing unknown. *Britanniam qui mortales initio coluerint, indigenæ an advecti, ut inter barbaros, parum compertum* (Agric. Vit. c. xi). He then advances several conjectures, that the Caledonians were of German origin, and the Silures of Spanish; or rather upon the whole, that they were all of Gallick. But he advances these only as conjectures, as problematical reasonings from the aspect of the men, the vicinity of the several parts of the continent, or a conformity of religious

ligious principles. And "all the antient writers, that agree in representing the *first* inhabitants of Britain as a tribe of the "Gauls," appear to be only one, who merely *conjectures* that they were so, but asserts their real origin to have been utterly unknown.—I mention not this, to destroy or render dubious the Gallick origin of the old Britons. I do it, merely to vindicate the truth. The argument is a good one in itself. And I have endeavoured to improve it into a demonstration, in ch. xii. f. 4 and History of the Britons asserted p. 28—29. . . .

— "Their language was the same, their manners, their governments, their superstition; varied only by those small differences, which time and a communication with the bordering nations must necessarily introduce."

This account is evidently taken from Tacitus, though neither Tacitus nor any other historian is quoted for it. His words are these. Eorum [Gallorum] satra deprehendas, superstitionum persuasione. Sermo haud multum diversus; in deposcendis periculis eadem audacia, et, ubi advenerint, in detrectandis eadem formido. And Mr. Hume appears to have added to Tacitus's account, and thrown in a circumstance that is not true. Tacitus says not, that the governments of the Gauls and Britons were the same. And they were not. The Gauls had nothing but a kind of aristocratical republics among them, in the days of Caesar and Strabo. And the Britons had none at all. The magistrates of the former, therefore, were always elective and generally annual; and those of the latter hereditary and for life. See Caesar and Strabo for the Gallick republics; Caesar p. 2, 3, and 5 for the Helvetian, p. 9 and 34 for the Aeduan, and p. 32 and Strabo p. 301 for all. . . .

P. 3. "The Greek and Roman navigators or merchants brought back the most shocking accounts of the ferocity of the people, which they magnified, as usual, in order to excite the admiration of their countrymen. The south-east parts, however, of Britain had already, before the age of Caesar,

“made the first and most requisite step towards a civil settlement; and the Britains, by tillage and agriculture, had there increased to a great multitude (Cæsar lib iv).”

Where are these most shocking accounts of our ancestors to be found at present? I remember nothing but the *Britannos hospitibus feros* of Horace, which is not very shocking, and could not have been much magnified: And the quotation here from Cæsar is the first in the history, and is greatly misapplied.—That only the *south-eastern* parts of Britain were acquainted with tillage, is not said by Cæsar. His words are these. *Britanniæ pars interior, ab iis incolitur, quos natos in insulâ ipsâ memoriâ proditum dicunt; maritima pars ab iis qui—ex Belgis transierant: and, Ex his omnibus longè sunt humanissimi qui Cantium incolunt; quæ regio est maritima omnis, neque multum a Gallicâ differunt consuetudine; interiores plerique frumenta non ferunt* (p. 89). Here we see, not merely the south-eastern, but all the maritime Britons, all on the southern coast of the island, expressly declared to practise agriculture. And not only these, but some of the inland tribes, are equally declared to have practised it. So grossly erroneous is this account of Mr. Hume's! And another passage in Cæsar coincides with this, and two in Tacitus and Dio confirm both. *Maritima pars. [Britanniæ] ab iis [incolitur] qui ex Belgis transierant, qui omnes bello illato ibi remanserunt, atque agros colere coeperunt.* And we find the Britons under Boadicia, the *Trinobantes*, a Belgick tribe, and the *Cassii* and *Iceni*, two Aboriginal ones, and running up to the north as far as Lincolnshire at least, all well acquainted with the arts of agriculture; and the more northerly of them, the *Iceni*, even before their reduction by the Romans. This appears with regard to the last from the notice given us by Tacitus concerning them, That previously to their insurrection under Boadicia, and while they were meditating it, they had been *frugibus inebriati* (Ann. lib. xiv. c. 38). And it appears equally with regard to all from Boadicia's address to them all, That they were obliged to cultivate their lands, *yuwelan*, with heavy taxes upon them (1604).—Nor had the *south-eastern* Britons, merely, increased.

increased to a great multitude. • Mr. Hume had before restricted to the *south-east* of Britain, what Cæsar had applied to all the southern coast; and even to some of the interior parts of the country. • And he now advances farther, and confines equally to the *south-east* what Cæsar has spoken of all the island. So inaccurate and careless is he, merely in copying the notices of Cæsar! The latter having divided the islanders more precisely than any other of his countrymen, into Belgæ and Aborigines, and assigned them their respective possessions in general; he proceeds to an account of both, and begins with this remark; That both Aborigines and Belgæ were exceedingly numerous, *Hominum est infinita multitudo*. And Diodorus accordingly calls Britain the well-peopled island, *πολυ-ανθρωπος νησος* (p. 347). — But Mr. Hume, even in the compass of this very extract, has fallen into two other inaccuracies. Cæsar's *Hominum infinita multitudo* he translates into “a great multitude”; words much below the standard. And this populousness he ascribes to the practice of agriculture; when the facts appear not with the smallest connexion in his author, and could not possibly have any at all. The practice of agriculture was confined to the more southerly parts of the island. And the populousness extended over the whole of it.

—“The other inhabitants of the island still maintained themselves by pasturage: they were clothed with skins of beasts: they dwelt in huts, which they reared in the forests and marshes, with which the country was covered: they shifted easily their habitations, when actuated either by the hopes of plunder or the fear of an enemy: the convenience of feeding their cattle was even a sufficient motive for removing their seats; and being ignorant of all the refinements of life, their wants and their possessions were equally scanty and limited.”

This general account of the Britons is all one accumulation of errors, formed partly by a repetition of the preceding mistakes, and partly by an addition of others. — The preceding have occa-
sioned

sioned Mr. Hume to represent all but the south-eastern Britons, as maintaining themselves by pasturage, all but the south-eastern as cloathed with skins, and all but them as dwelling in huts reared among the forests and marshes, easily shifting their habitations, and having few wants and small possessions. And we must once more produce the often-cited passage of Cæsar, in opposition to this strange account. *Interiores plerique, says he, — lacte et carne vivunt, pellibusque sunt vestiti.* They were not all but the south-eastern Britons, they were not even any of the westernly Belgæ, and they were not even some of the more inland natives; they were only the generality of the Aborigines; who lived upon milk and flesh, and cloathed themselves in skins. — Nor did all but the south-eastern dwell in huts constructed amid the forests and marshes. Strabo p. 306 informs us, that the Britons lived in cabins among the forests. But then he confines not the remark to all except the south-eastern. He applies it to all the Britons of the south. He extends it to all of the inland country. And he carries it over all the island. — That all but the south-eastern easily shifted their habitations and seats, is also equally false. Strabo, I think, is the only author that has been quoted by others (for Mr. Hume quotes nobody here), in proof of this opinion. And I have already shewn, that his words carry no such meaning with them. And, even if they did, they are not restricted to the south-eastern Britons, but equally spoken of all. — Such are the many mistakes in this small extract! And there are still more.

None of the Britons shifted their habitations and seats easily, as the hope of plunder or the fear of being plundered, or as the want of pasturage for their cattle, led them. Nor were all but the south-eastern ignorant of every refinement of life. — Mr. Hume has erred throughout this whole passage, from a strange indistinctness and confusion of ideas concerning the Britons. The other inhabitants were equally with the south-eastern divided into tribes and kingdoms. Their possessions were equally fixed and known among both. They roved not, any more than these,
over

over the face of the country, settling sometimes in one place and sometimes in another. Each tribe had its distinct territory. And some of their dominions were not scanty and narrow. When they were alarmed by the plundering inroads of their neighbours, they drove off their cattle before the invaders. And they left their houses. Many of them were also employed in looking after the herds, the droves, and the flocks of their lords, along the woods or heaths of the country; and gradually moved from the hills to the vallies, and from the vallies to the hills, for the sake of pasturage. But the tribe never shifted its position. And nothing but a total inattentiveness to what appears manifest upon the face of Mr. Hume's own history, the regular division of the island into principalities and kingdoms, could have seduced the author into this extravagant representation of the natives. The Britons did not live, as Mr. Hume describes them; like so many hords of Tartars or tribes of wild Indians. They were formed into regular kingdoms. They had ascertained possessions. And they were governed by stated laws.—This account will serve of itself to demonstrate the fallacy of the other assertion in Mr. Hume, That all but the south-eastern Britons were, unacquainted with every refinement of life. Where a regular frame of polity had been erected, and where property was regularly ascertained, there many of the refinements must necessarily have been known. And, that they actually were among the Britons, I have already shewn in the preceding chapters. The labours of the pottery, the loom, and the furnace, were successfully practised among them. The arts of the turner, the carpenter, the miner, and the architect, were studied and known. And many of the ruling principles of mechanics, many of the more mysterious truths of geometry, and various secrets in medicine, botany, astronomy, and religion, were familiar to the scholars of the island. And were such men ignorant of all the refinements of life? Common sense is shocked at the suggestion. And we need only appeal against it to a slight but remarkable fact, known to every reader, and of which we have demonstration

tion remaining at present. I speak of the piles at Coway, which the Britons contrived to drive into the hard bed of the Thames, several feet under the surface of the water; and to fix so firmly in the ground, that they have continued amid all the waste of time, the violence of floods, and the plunder of interest or curiosity, the admiration of every age. And, even if Mr. Hume's representation of the Britons had been as generally true as it is false, his extension of the censure to all but the south-eastern must have destroyed the whole of it. All the *southern* Britons were equally Belgæ, equally engaged in trade, and equally conversant with foreigners. Cæsar indeed speaks of the Cantii as the most humanized tribe of the island. But Diodorus says the same of the Britons in the most south-westerly parts of it. And, even according to Cæsar's account, agriculture particularly was practised by all the Belgæ, and also by several tribes of the Aborigines. The refinements of life, that I have shewn to have been cultivated in the island, were all cultivated equally by the Britons in the south. And most of them were known to all the Britons.

—“The Britains were divided into many small nations or tribes; and being a military people, whose sole property was their sword and their cattle, it was impossible, after they had acquired a relish of liberty, for their princes or chieftains to establish any despotic authority over them.”

We have been told immediately before, that all but the south-eastern Britons roved over the country, and shifted their habitations as the hope of plundering or the fear of being plundered led them. And yet here, in the very next words, we find all the Britons as I have before represented them, formed into regular kingdoms and subject to regular governments. Both however, as I have observed above, cannot be true. Regular kingdoms and governments, in an island especially that was infinitely populous and full of buildings, necessarily involve
in

in their ideas a permanent residence and defined possessions. And, if the point wanted any additional proof, we might remark that Meli describes Britain thus: Fert populos regeque populorum, sed, ut longius a continenti absint, ita, aliarum opum ignari magis, tantum pecore ac *smibus* dites; and, bella contrahunt, ac se frequenter invicem infestant,—studio *prolatandi* ea quæ possident (l. iii. c. 6). So inconsistent is Mr. Hume with himself, even within the compass of two succeeding sentences!

Nor was the sole property of the Britons their sword and their cattle. It was not, either as they were nations or individuals. The soil must necessarily have been property with both. And the numerous houses of the Britons must have been equally so with all. So vague and unmeaning is Mr. Hume's hypothesis, all the airy speculation of a mind that has taken a hasty view of the island, and never attended even to the consequence of his own notices and representations.—And Mr. Hume says further, That it was impossible, after the Britons had acquired a relish of liberty, for their chieftains to tyrannize over them. But how were the Britons to acquire this relish? By roving with their cattle over the country? Mr. Hume's argument plainly intimates this. And yet he cannot mean it. For this relish is attributed to all the Britons without exception: and the south eastern are expressly excepted from the roving. And how could the rovers obtain the relish, when even they, as appears from this very quotation, were in regular communities and under regular governments? But let us suppose the Britons possessed of this relish, and then see the result. It was then impossible, says Mr. Hume, for their princes to tyrannize over them. And why was it impossible? Is the Genius of liberty, like some of the knight-errants in ancient story, cased by the Gods in a coat of impenetrable armour? And has that heroic spirit, which blusters and bullies in these our days, never crouched under the feet of our kings? For the safety of liberty, I wish the one could be imagined without credulity. And, for

its credit with the world, I should be glad that the other could be asserted with truth.

—“ Their governments, though, monarchical, were free (Diod. Sic. l. iv, Mela lib. iii. cap. 6, Strabo lib. iv), as well as those of all the Celtick nations; and the common people seem to have enjoyed more liberty among them (Dion Cassius lib. 75), than among the nations of Gaul.”

This passage is full of mistakes. And I shall endeavour to point them all out.—Mr. Hume says, that the British government was monarchical. And yet in p. 2. he tells us, that it was the same with the Gallick, which I have shewed before not to have been monarchical.—Mr. Hume also says, that the British monarchies were free governments; and quotes for it Diodorus, Mela, and Strabo. All that the last says, is this: *Δυνασται ὅ ἐσι παρ' αὐτοῖς*, there are many monarchies among the Britons; and immediately afterwards he speaks of their monarchs, *τῶν Δυναστῶν τινες τῶν αὐτοῦ* (p. 306). And here is evidently not a single syllable concerning the free nature of the British monarchies. But perhaps we may find the proper notices in Diodorus or Mela. What the former says is this, *Βασιλεὺς καὶ Δυναστὴς πολλὰς ἔχων*, that the island had many kings and monarchs in it (p. 347). And here therefore is as little as in Strabo, concerning the freedom of the Britons under their kings. If it is found any where, it must appear in Mela. And his words are these: *Fert populos regesque populorum*, there are many communities in the country under their distinct princes. All these evidences, we see, prove nothing more than the monarchical nature of the governments. And the freedom enjoyed under them, for any thing that yet appears, is all an additional touch from Mr. Hume's pencil.—But perhaps Dion Cassius, quoted afterwards for the greater freedom of the Britons than the Gauls, may at least prove the positive point. And his words seem likely to do it. Among the Caledonians and *Ματαῖ*, says he, *δημοκρατεῖται ὡς ὡλήνη* (p. 1280); the

the generality of their tribes are under republican governments. This is a very extraordinary assertion. And it deserves to be considered.

The words, we see, are restricted by Dio to the *Mæatae* and *Caledonians*, and applied by Mr. Hume to the Britons in general. But we have a testimony equal to Dio's, even his own, That the Britons in general were not under republican governments. They were, he expressly assures us in p. 957, under kingly. And therefore, as Mr. Hume has applied the words, there is a direct contradictoriness in Dio, which necessarily destroys his credibility. This takes off at once the whole weight of his testimony here. And as the one intimation, concerning the greater liberty of the Britons than the Gauls, is entirely built upon him; they both fall with him to the ground. — It may be proper, however, to observe in addition to this remark, That Dio speaks not of the Britons enjoying a greater share of liberty under their kings, as Mr. Hume interprets him. And, even if his account had not been superseded by himself in another place, it would not prove the point for which it is adduced by Mr. Hume. It would not shew the freedom of the monarchical government in Britain. It would only prove the existence of a popular one. And consequently, even if its testimony was of any moment, it would be in direct opposition to Mr. Hume's representation. — But Dio's account is not only contradicted by himself, but by every other writer. As applied by Mr. Hume to the whole island, it is encountered equally by the very *Diodorus*, *Mela*, and *Strabo*, whom Mr. Hume quotes immediately before, and by *Cæsar* (p. 74, 92, &c.), *Tacitus* (*Agric. Vit.* c. 15), and others. Each of these is an authority fully equal to Dio's. And the concurrence of all forms an irresistible weight of evidence against him. And, even in their natural signification, and as applied only to the generality of the *Picts*, the words of Dio are directly confronted by a passage in *Martial*; which of itself is perhaps not an in-

feriour testimony to Dio's, and, by its coincidence with all the other accounts of the island, becomes greatly superiour to it :

Turpes, humiles, supplicesque,
Pictorum sola basiatę regum.

Lib. x. E. 73.

I have gone over this extract from Mr. Hume the more circumstantially, in order fully to open the extravagance of it. I have shewn in the body of this work, that the monarchies of Britain were founded on a regular system of liberty. And so far I have asserted the interests of freedom and of man. But the spirit of the times, if not properly checked, would carry us into absurdities that disgrace the cause. We should see the Tar-tuffes of liberty, like those of religion formerly, throwing a discredit over it by their follies. And ancient history would be gradually drest up in the cropt hair, the cloak, and the band of political puritanism. And there is the more reason for this apprehension, when we see so philosophical a spirit as Mr. Hume's carried away by the civil fanaticism of the times, and sacrificing truth at the shine of freedom.

P. 3—4. " Each state was divided into factions within itself
"(Tacit. Agric.): it was agitated with emulation towards the
"neighbouring states: and while the arts of peace were yet
"unknown, wars were the chief occupation, and formed the
"chief object of ambition among the people."

All this implies a fixedness of possession and dominion among the Britons, which very ill agrees with the account before of their roving over the face of the island. But indeed all this description of our forefathers, short and scanty as it is, is little more than a mass of gross contradictions. And the lines are like the British kingdoms in the present extract, almost each of them in a state of hostility with its neighbour.—But that each
kingdom

kingdom was divided into factions within itself, is not true, as deduced from the work here quoted for it, Tacitus's *Life of Agricola*. That indeed proves just the reverse. *Olim*, says Tacitus, *regibus parebant, nunc per principes factionibus et studiis trahuntur* (c. 12).—And, that the arts of peace were not unknown to the Britons, is plain from Mr. Hume's own words, which allow tillage and agriculture to have been known to the south-eastern natives; and still plainer from Cæsar's, which shew them to have been familiar to all the southern and some of the inland Britons. And in the present work I have even shewn all the mechanical arts to have been practised in every part of the island.

So grossly inaccurate as Mr. Hume is in his general representation of the civil state of the Britons, we cannot expect him to be commonly precise with regard to their geographical divisions. If he has erred in a plain path and at noon-day, he must be sure to deviate upon a winding one and in the shade of the evening. And to criticize upon these mistakes would perhaps be cruel; like arraigning a person for the breach of laws with which he was never acquainted. I shall therefore pass them all over. Only let me observe, that there is a capital absurdity both in Mr. Carte's and Mr. Hume's histories, which appears manifest upon the face of them. And that is the relating the military transactions of the island, without any previous information concerning the names, the position, and the power of the respective tribes in it. In this mode of writing history, the reader is introduced into a sort of fairy land, where beings arise with whom he has no previous acquaintance, and kingdoms are mentioned of which we have never yet heard the existence. Thus the Trinobantes are mentioned for the first time in p. 6 of the one, and the Iceni and Cattivellauni in p. 27 of the other, without one note of their situation and strength. And the reader is left entirely in the dark, whether they resided in Kent or Cornwall, in Middlesex or Cathness.

I HAVE

I HAVE here laid open a variety of errors, within the compass only of two or three pages of Mr. Hume's history. And I may subjoin one remark to the whole, That his in-accuracy and in-attention have made him give us scarcely any real information, concerning the interior state of the island, even for the whole of the Roman period. His hastiness to discharge himself of this part of his work, has increased and multiplied his mistakes. And yet it has in all probability preserved him from more; as upon a rough road a brisk pace is frequently safer for fine horses, than a slow one.

I · N · D · E · X.

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THE END OF VOLUME THE FIRST.



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